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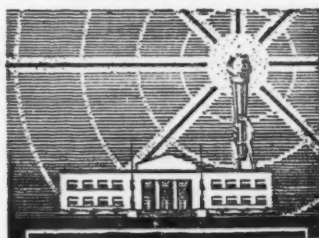
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VOLUME XLIII, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1952

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIII, NUMBER 1

Continuing The Historical Outlook

JANUARY, 1952

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.
Subscription \$3.00 a year, single numbers 40 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Copyright, 1952, McKinley Publishing Co. Entered as second-class matter, October 26, 1909, at Post Office at Philadelphia, Pa., under Act of March 3, 1879

As the Editor Sees it

It has often been said that the totalitarian nations miss no opportunity to preach and teach the political and economic systems they uphold, while the capitalistic democracies seem reluctant to advertise their own advantages. No doubt the statement is true. To some extent it is also understandable. In the dictatorships the presentation of a special ideology is a primary function of government, and is religiously carried on by a dedicated minority of the people. Rarely does the average peasant, laborer or professional man in such a country enthusiastically and voluntarily express himself. Teachers in totalitarian states obviously indoctrinate their pupils, for that is a basic requirement for holding their jobs. On the other hand, citizens of a free democracy are under no compulsion to proselytize; they are accustomed to thinking and speaking as they please. They criticize American institutions and economic practices whenever these things annoy them slightly and they make little effort to discuss them deeply or intelligently. As for American teachers, we also teach pretty much as we please. We may make an honest effort to inculcate the principles of democracy in our pupils, but when it comes to selling our young people on the capitalist economic system, we are apt to be a little reluctant.

Why are we not so aggressive in propagandizing for free enterprise as the Reds are in preaching communism? Is it because we do not believe it is necessary to belabor what we think must be obvious? Or is it that because of labor-management disputes, wage problems, and other points of disagreement among our people, we are not quite sure ourselves about free enterprise? Yet in a world where other peoples are perennially harassed by hunger, and give up their freedom in the vain search for some economic panacea, we have a system that has produced tremendous general prosperity with no loss of individual freedom. Is it not our duty to show these things to our youngsters?

We recently heard a talk by Alvin Brown, a vice-president of the Johns-Manville Corporation, which put the case for free enterprise as

simply and logically as one could wish. He asked that our young people be taught a few basic facts: that wealth comes only from goods and services, and that the production of goods and services requires the cooperative efforts of four elements—creators who provide ideas, riskers who supply the tools, leaders who direct the operations and workers who carry them out. The latter are numerically the greatest and hence can demand and obtain, through their political power, any proportion of the resulting wealth that they want. But if they demand too much, they take away the incentive which stimulates the other elements to do their part. Then their place will have to be taken by government. But this will be monopoly, which we believe to be evil, and which the government is supposed to watch. To quote Mr. Brown:

"When government has only a job of watching, its access to power is limited. If it misbehaves, it can still do no great harm before the people have a chance to dismiss its members. But when government dominates all the vast industrial operations of the Nation, there will be no limit to its power for harm. . . . Today, when industrial disputes occur, government mediates between worker and industry. When the worker works for government, who shall mediate between him and government? . . . As a member of the whole people, he shares all power; as a free individual, he has government to protect him; but when he and all others work for government, his freedom as an individual will disappear. He will trade a protector for a master."

To teach young people these things is as reasonable and necessary as to teach them the rules of English grammar or the elements of arithmetic. They will need to know and understand them if they are to preserve the principles of economic relationships which history has so clearly proven to be sound. If they do not understand and adhere to them, they may be led down the same road of false doctrine whence have gone so many other peoples to their own sorrow. It is our responsibility to teach the truth.

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIII, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1952

Let's Use More Economics in Teaching Economic History

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If the birth of a new subject may be dated approximately from the appearance of the first textbook in it, then American economic history was born about 1905 with the publication of the late Katherine Coman's *Industrial History of the United States*. Now, a generation and a half later, it is proper that American historians should review what they have accomplished. We may take real satisfaction in the popularity and growth of our subject, in the valuable research which we have accomplished, and in the Economic History Association that we have founded. But we should take considerably less pride in what we have chosen to teach the hundreds of thousands of college students who have come under our instruction. It is not that the facts that we have presented are conspicuously in error, nor that our interpretations are too "liberal" or too "conservative." Rather it is because we have chosen to place our emphasis largely on learning facts and have neglected analysis and interpretation. Much of the time the facts alone contribute little to an understanding of present-day problems. Our subject, economic history, suggests the use of two tools, economics and history. We have neglected the economics, the analytical or interpretative tool. It is my intention to show what American economic history has become, to explain why that is not enough, and to suggest ways of improvement.

First of all, what is American economic history? That is not altogether so easy to

answer as you might expect. Several economic approaches to history are frequently thought of under the heading of economic history. For example there are business history, business cycle history, and the history of economic thought. Certainly all these are important aspects of economic history but they are only aspects of it. Usually American economic history is thought of as that broad subject which attempts to treat the history of our economic development under seven major headings. These are, (1) the westward movement, (2) agriculture, (3) transportation, (4) manufacturing, (5) finance, (6) population and labor, and (7) commerce. Those are the major topics covered in most of the twenty American economic history textbooks which have appeared over the past 46 years. They contain much material neglected by the American historian.

Unfortunately we stop short of what should be our goals in writing up this material. We do little more than describe. Students read the textbooks and then discuss in class with the instructor the events they read about. Most of the time we neglect to tell why events took place when they did, and as they did, and what their significance was anyway. For example, why did the industrial revolutions or the transportation revolutions or the trust movement occur in this country when they did? And having occurred, what were their major consequences? What hypotheses, theories or principles may we derive from these events? What generally

accepted principles are illustrated by them? The textbook rarely poses these questions or supplies the answers to them. Such questions are left to the lecturer or classroom teachers to handle and this usually amounts to neglect.

What is the reason for this neglect of economic analysis? It is primarily because most of the American economic history textbooks have been written by American historians. As historians these gentlemen are extremely competent scholars. Why do the historians outnumber the economists as writers of these texts? It may well be because they tell the story better than the economists do, and if so that is a tribute to their writing skill. It may be because all economic histories necessarily contain many more historical facts than economic principles. Yet, book agents report that economic history is generally taught from the economics department rather than from the history department.

Of the ten American economic history texts now in use in this country, only three may be said to have been written to any degree from an economic point of view. The most widely used American economic history text was written by the able author of one of the most widely used American political history texts. Most of the other popular American economic history texts were also written by historians. There is only one case of the writer of an economic principles text also writing an economic history text and that particular text has little economic analysis in it. There is no question that texts with the more strictly descriptive or historical approach are more extensively used. That means that American economic history is economic chiefly in the sense that it describes how our ancestors made their living. That may or may not be satisfactory to you depending upon your answer to the next question.

Why do we teach American economic history? Two answers are most frequently given. One is that economic history shows the student how our economy developed to its present state and, by implication, why we have the laws and customs, the high standard of living, and the economic problems that we do. The other answer is that economic history provided the illustrative material for the economic principles

courses to follow. Both these are excellent reasons for teaching the subject. Unfortunately there is considerable doubt whether our teaching of American economic history achieves either of these ends.

A third reason might well be added. That is to enable the economic adviser, the intelligent voter, and good citizen to recognize and avoid political measures that may bring economic relief in the short run but bring on economic disaster in the long run. Making such decisions requires intelligence and courage. Unfortunately some economists, either real or self-styled, have had great influence in making government policies in recent years but in doing so they have paid slight heed to the lessons of economic history. And many educated citizens have blithely accepted much economic history, or they have not applied their economics to their history, or they have limited themselves to the history which has taken place within their own lifetime, or they have fallen back on the ancient excuse that conditions are different this time, or they have quoted (*ad nauseam*) the "bromide" that something must be done *now* regardless of what happens in the long run, for in the long run we shall all be dead. For centuries essentially that last has been the excuse of the shortsighted politicians. A longer-run view should be expected of the educated man and especially of the academic man. Is not some of the explanation their lack of an adequate training in American economic history? Quite possibly.

How much economics do we teach in our economic history courses judging by the texts that we use? It is obvious from reading most of them that we have omitted many simple concepts, theories, and principles that could easily be included. The fact that most American economic history is probably taught at the freshman level does not change that fact. A freshman American economic history course can introduce the student, through historical examples, to many of the easier economic ideas. This is not to suggest trying to teach them value theories or the intricacies of Keynesian economics along with their economic history. But I know from personal experience that they can be taught considerable economics and that it makes their economic history mean much more

to them. But let us get down to cases. Below are two tables.

The first table and unfortunately the short one, is a fairly complete list of the concepts and principles that are to be found in the normal American economic history textbook. The second, the longer one, is a list of concepts that the texts usually neglect. Yet these latter concepts could easily be woven into the discussion of American economic history, regardless of whether the student has already had a principles course or not.

TABLE I

List of Economic Concepts Which are Ordinarily Taught

1. Greshams' Law
2. Inflation
3. Deflation
4. Mercantilism
5. Laissez-faire
6. The Protective Tariff
7. Bounties and Subsidies
8. "Favorable" and "Unfavorable" Balance of Trade
9. Monopoly
10. Where transportation is costly, only articles of small bulk and great value are moved

Can you, in all honesty, add more than three or four additional concepts which you have found stressed? If you can add many, you are an exception to the general run and probably you do not need to proceed further with this article.

TABLE II

List of Economic Concepts which are Generally Neglected

I. Westward Movement and Agriculture

1. "Specialization is limited by the extent of the market." Examples:
 - a. Pioneers could rarely specialize
 - b. A broadening of markets led to the Agricultural Revolution, etc.
2. What extractive industries are and why they were pursued first
3. The effect of cheap land on our economic development. Examples:
 - a. Soil butchery
 - b. Rapid exploitation of resources
 - c. But not the discredited safety valve theory

4. The meaning of Conservation: efficient use, not hoarding
5. Diminishing returns: the nation had reached this point in the use of many of its resources by about 1900
6. The tendency of advanced civilizations to prey on the less advanced
7. Over-production in agriculture and its cures (this will be discussed more fully below)
8. Economic problems created by government sponsored farm monopolies like the AAA
9. High fixed costs in agriculture (expensive land and costly machinery). These lead to farm tenancy, further agricultural revolution, larger farms, demands for subsidies, and perhaps eventually to nationalization of farming

II. Transportation

1. Influence of water transportation on the location or growth of early settlements
2. Cheapening transportation widened markets, stimulated specialization, and led to the agricultural and industrial revolutions
3. The "natural monopoly" character of canals and railroads
4. The joint cost nature of railroad service
5. What "watered stock" is and why it must especially be forbidden to railroads and public utilities
6. The comparative costs of operating government-built canals and privately-built railroads—from society's viewpoint the canals are usually more costly because the cost of building them is borne by the state, not the shipper. If this cost were included, then rates would usually be higher than railroad rates

III. Manufacturing

1. Again, "specialization is limited by the extent of the market" (see further discussion below)
2. Why early industries were extractive and small-scale
3. The conditions necessary for the factory system to develop in the making of any product
4. What capital is and how it is formed

5. What a corporation is and how it helps to mobilize capital
6. What "trading on the equity" is; its advantages and disadvantages
7. The immense importance of high-fixed costs in industry (see discussion below)
8. The difference between trusts and large-scale producers
9. Why the tariff was the "mother of trusts"
10. Query. What does the manufacturer want most, maximum profits or a stable market?
11. Major economic factors determining the location of various industries

IV. Finance

1. The evolution and nature of money—barter, credit, wampum, commodity money, specie, paper money, demand deposits
2. Historically, money, i.e., medium of exchange, has been safest when it has also served as a standard of value
3. What is a monetary standard, for example, the tobacco standard, the gold standard, the bimetallic standard?
4. When is there a shortage of money?
5. The three basic ways of financing a war
6. Who gains and who loses in a period of inflation?
7. Who gains and who loses in a period of deflation?
8. What banks are, how they have helped our economic growth and how they have hindered it
9. What bank credit is, especially demand deposits.
10. What central banks are
11. The nature and significance of the investment bank
12. The nature and significance of the stock exchange
13. The nature and significance of income and excise taxes
14. What a business cycle is: its four phases
15. The meaning of national income

V. Labor

1. Much land and little population lead to slavery, and vice-versa
2. The fixed cost character of slavery—similarity to modern industries

3. Why was indentured servitude favored in the 18th century and contract labor frowned upon in the 19th century?
4. In what ways is labor a commodity and in what ways is it not?
5. Are unions monopolies?
6. What are real wages?
7. When and why real wages rise or fall
8. Two meanings of labor productivity (see discussion below)
9. The principle of diminishing returns provides the justification for immigration restrictions but not for tariffs

VI. Commerce

1. Both parties may gain by trade; often both did when the Stone Age Indians took hatchets for furs in trading with the white man.
2. Some of the more important pros and cons of the tariff
3. Tariffs have little justification in a world of competition, but they may well be justified in a world of monopoly and a semi-socialistic state
4. Someone must perform the functions of the middleman and meet those costs
5. What factors increase the number of middlemen and what factors decrease the number
6. High fixed costs in industry are basic reasons for much of our economic imperialism
7. Direct foreign investments have proven more satisfactory than portfolio investments

VII. Miscellaneous

1. Some good general measures of our material progress are:
 - a. The increase in per capita real income
 - b. The increase in life expectancy at birth
 - c. The increased amount per capita spent on education
2. The economic meaning of capitalism and of socialism
3. Some of the economic reasons for the steady trend toward socialism in recent generations, namely the increasing populations, growing fixed costs, and increasing specialization
4. How life in a regulated economy differs

from life in a freer one

5. How the economic thought of an age reflects the development of that age. For example, a nation (England) with rapidly improving transportation and the most advanced industries proposed laissez-faire to a world whose markets it could easily have wished to invade.
6. Certainly there are others that might be on this list. Perhaps your favorite principle has been ignored

Most of these concepts are very obvious if you have had much training in economics. Perhaps you have already used some of them and are glad to be reminded of others. Probably you say you cannot use them all in one course. You may be right. Still it is amazing how many you can dwell upon briefly. Let me discuss four concepts which I have found particularly helpful and which are generally neglected in texts.

(1) Few economic terms have been more loosely and improperly used than "overproduction." It should be defined in the next sentence after it is mentioned. Overproduction means producing more of some product than can be sold at a price that will cover costs. The western grain farmers were plagued by overproduction in the 1870's and 1890's and the American farmers of the 1930's likewise had to deal with it. It is by no means an economic disease limited to agriculture, but discussion of it here will be limited to agriculture. Once the students know the true meaning of the term, possible solutions occur to them and they even sense which are the wiser courses of action. If overproduction means producing more of a product than can be sold at a price that will cover costs, then the potential solutions to the problem are four, namely, (1) cutting costs, (2) increasing the demand, that is finding new uses for the product, (3) cutting the supply (or getting a subsidy for the supply produced) and (4) increasing the general price level in the expectation that high prices will raise agricultural prices faster and also make it easier for farmers to pay their debts.

Let us see the historical application of these solutions. In the 1870's farmers sought to cut costs by securing lower railroad rates and by eliminating some of the middlemen charges—

that is what the Granger movement was about. They also sought to raise the general price level—that is what the Free Silver movement was about. In the 1930's the government in behalf of the farmers sought to raise the general price level—that was a basic reason for devaluing the dollar and for the other inflationary privileges granted to the President under the Thomas amendment to the AAA in 1933. The government in behalf of the farmer also sought to cut the supply of several agricultural products by the AAA program. This was nothing else but a government sponsored farm monopoly.

Observe that, of these four possible methods of dealing with overproduction, two of them can be applied quickly, namely promoting inflation and cutting supply. The two others are difficult to apply, namely, cutting one's own cost and increasing the demand for the product. Yet these latter two are usually sounder in the long run. Raising the price level is a temporary expedient only. And certainly no nation ever solves economic problems for long by trying to produce less. In the 1930's the first of these easy solutions helped to pave the way for a domestic inflation in later years. The second of them raised the prices of certain agricultural products so high that some of our best foreign customers—buyers of cotton for example—began to buy elsewhere. Now if economic history is set forth in this fashion, it has more meaning to the student; it enables him to judge solutions to our economic problems with a more discriminating eye as to their probable effectiveness. It gives him the courage of his convictions that the easy way out may not be the best way in the long run.

(2) Adam Smith said "specialization is limited by the extent of the market." The meaning should be obvious. The student, once he has this simple principle explained to him, can see its applications to many stages of our development. It explains the necessary near self-efficiency of the colonial or pioneer household. It is implicit in each step in the evolution of manufacturing from home to factory. It clarifies the relationship among the transportation revolution, the industrial revolution, and the agricultural revolution of the early years of the last century. It sums up the reasons for

the increase in regional specialization. It is the key to changes in marketing from the peddler to the specialty store. It helps explain why some products can be made only on a small scale and at considerable expense. In short, it is one of the most useful of all principles in teaching economic history.

(3) High fixed costs are a third helpful concept. Once specialization has become profitable because the market has widened, better machines are devised to perform some of the simpler tasks and manufacturers hasten to install them. As more machines are used in manufacturing, they become complicated and costly and larger investments of capital become necessary. Money must be borrowed from someone or be risked by the entrepreneurs. Enough returns must be made on these investments to pay interest to borrowers and the owners also want a return on their investment. Manufacturers can cut costs by operating machines at full capacity, but that usually means invading more distant markets and engaging in keen competition with other producers. High fixed cost industries, whether they be railroads or steel companies, or refineries or steamship lines tend to experience bitter cutthroat competition in their early development. In later stages monopoly tends to develop. Either one company, such as the Standard Oil of New Jersey at one time, wins out and becomes a monopoly, or the competitors form pools or enter into great combines such as the United States Steel. This also produces a monopoly. The monopolies, of course, take steps to recover past losses, stabilize prices, and to stifle new competition. This is the story, in brief, of our trust movement of the 1900's.

Methods of handling monopolies had to be devised and were devised. Chief among them were the attempted dissolution of a few of the big monopolies, regulation of the rates of others, as in the case of railroads, the yardstick method as exemplified by the T.V.A. in more recent years, and nationalization as used by the English lately in the coal mining industry and the steel industry. The rise of high fixed cost industries and the problems they create thus demonstrate the reasons for our modern trend towards monopoly, more govern-

ment regulation, and apparently towards socialism.

The concept of high fixed costs is a principle around which to explain this important development to the student. Whether the teacher or the student approves or deplores what is happening, he sees the reasons for it and is in a better position to vote on issues connected with it.

(4) One last illustration may be added, the two meanings of labor productivity. Faced with increasingly powerful employers in the past century, laborers began to organize in their own defense. In some quarters they did this very effectively indeed, perhaps too effectively. When laborers demand wage increases, they base their claim frequently on the fact that the productivity of labor has increased. They argue that therefore they are entitled to more pay. What do they mean by an increase in productivity? Generally they mean that the value of the total product divided by the total number of hours of labor applied in producing the product has increased, in other words, that they now produce more in an hour, on the average, than before. At first glance they might seem entitled to an increase on the basis of this improvement. But let us look closer.

Why has production increased? Largely because the men have been able to use more and better tools and machines, not because they have worked harder or even more skillfully. Then maybe the people who supply the savings to buy the machines should keep all the increased profit. Economists know that this is not the answer either. Then what is the answer?

All products are made through a combination of what economists call the three factors of production, namely land, including all resources, labor, and capital, chiefly equipment. Any sensible producer will use the more plentiful of these factors most generously. The owners of such plentiful factors of production get only a small reward for *each unit* of their factor. In other words, if land is plentiful, the landowner will not expect to collect much rent per acre of what he leases. Likewise the scarce factors will be used more sparingly and the owner of *each unit* of this will tend to get a

larger payment. But how, you may say, can you tell what is the proper pay or reward for labor? The answer is, find, *if you can*, how much the last man who was worthwhile hiring added to the total produced. The value of what he produced is called the marginal productivity of labor. That is quite a different thing from the average productivity which we first mentioned.

The student should know the difference, for historians, politicians, labor leaders, and others are constantly confusing him on this point. They do so largely because they are confused themselves. He should know that average productivity can be easily calculated but that it means rather little. He should know that marginal productivity means a great deal but that it can be calculated only roughly. It is the marginal productivity of the three factors of production that has throughout our history *tended* to determine how society's income shall be divided. It tends to determine whether we rewarded capital generously, "butchered" the land, and prized labor, as in colonial times, or whether we began to emphasize the need for conservation, paid capital well, although not as well as before, and exploited labor, as we did, say, about 1910.

In other words, the student should understand the vital role that the relative scarcities of the various factors of production play in determining the rewards that their owners will get. For example, if capital is discouraged, it can only result in the long run in having to pay a higher price for what is left. If it is encouraged, labor will then be relatively scarcer and will tend to receive a higher reward. Or put another way, the more tools our factories can afford, the more they will need men to use them, the more they can produce, and the more the men are likely to succeed in obtaining wages.

If economic history can teach the operation of economic principles in the long run and explain the background of some of our present problems, it will be one of the most useful of college courses. It will be able to contribute enormously toward educating better citizens and toward giving the nation better leadership.

Unfortunately, these are not the principles and the problems that are discussed in the

American economic textbooks nor, I think, in most of the courses as they are taught. Instead, our attention is too frequently devoted to the founding of each of the colonies, to the terms of the navigation acts, to the exact details of the westward movement, to the many early canal systems, to early railroads and to technical improvements in various major industries. These are interesting facts and where they illustrate an important lesson, they should be studied. But their application to present day problems should be stressed. Why are principles neglected and detailed facts concentrated upon? Of course there are many reasons. Frequently instructors have not had the training in economics which would cause them to think of economic principles. Some have hardly had any training in economics at all. That is especially likely to be true where economic history is taught in the history department, but even when the subject is taught in the economics department, it is generally done by beginning assistants and at the freshman level, and these tend to concentrate their attention on facts rather than to attempt much analysis or interpretation.

Some will say that the students have had no training in economic principles yet and therefore are not ready for analysis. That raises the question of whether economic history is better taught in the freshman year, before economic principles, or in the junior year, after economic principles. My personal answer used to be that economic history and economic principles are like the two parts of a sandwich, and that it did not matter too much which was considered meat and which was considered bread, so long as one was sandwiched between two courses of the other. Being an economic historian I preferred that economic history be taken twice. More recently, however, my opinion on this subject has changed. Most of us have strangely overlooked the very best time that the student might take American economic history, namely, right along with his economic theory. Each subject then means more. The student does not have time to forget his principles or his history between courses. This procedure has been extraordinarily successful in the few instances I have seen it tried. The economic history course, serves in a sense, as a course in economic problems. It is even more

likely to be successful when the same instructors are teaching both the economic principles and the economic history courses. They are fairly sure to bring illustrative material for the application of principles to the attention of the students, who, whatever our hopes may be, usually overlook these connections.

What practical steps might be taken to make the teaching of American economic history more effective? If American economic history is taught in the History Department, it should be put in the hands of history teachers who have had a graduate minor, or an undergraduate major in economics. Also, students should be encouraged to take American economic history at the same time that they take the course in economic principles. That means that the course should be open to sophomores. Often it is limited to freshmen. The attention of instructors might be called to some of the economic concepts which they could use, or to some of the texts that incorporate such concepts in their treatment of American economic history. Even if they prefer not to adopt the more economic texts, they should consult them when preparing for class discussions.

If the course is taught in the Economics Department, then instructors with an undergraduate major in history, or a graduate minor in history, are needed. The course should be offered to sophomores alongside the principles

course. So far as possible, the same staff should teach both economic principles and economic history. A text with an economic approach should, of course, be preferred.

In summary, the reasons for suggesting a closer tie-up between economic principles and economic history is a need for a better understanding of the large number of economic problems we must face in the present age, problems which to some extent have had parallels in previous ages. Politicians, administrators, and governmental advisers are continually offering advice which needs to be examined in the light of economic history, more economic history than the years back to 1930 or 1920 supply. A truly educated man is one who can detect sound policy from plausible but unsound policy. We need, of course, more educated men and women. For our students to be properly educated, they need the facts and perspective of history and the analysis of economics. Economic history provides these. Without history, it is almost impossible to know how and when the principles of economics apply, or to convince others that they do apply. Without economics, history can easily become a conglomeration of interesting but meaningless facts. It is high time the two subjects were taught simultaneously so that their relationship would not any longer be lost to the teachers and students.

The Teacher and the Social Studies

THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER AND AMERICAN BIOGRAPHY

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Although during every year many outstanding titles in American biography are issued by commercial publishers, university presses and small printing houses, the busy social studies teacher often neglects these volumes. Yet the use of biography in vitalizing the study of history has been advocated both by educators and by historians, especially during the last two decades.

In 1927 Gamaliel Bradford suggested the introduction of "biographical studies as a central element of instruction and inspiration" in both colleges and secondary schools.¹ "Nothing so interests young people, or old ones, or all men and women," he observes, "so much as other men and women."

A decade ago Katherine Crane wrote that "Biography, constituting as it does the record

of human nature against the background of events, now shaping and now being shaped by them, is a proper study for a generation peculiarly bereft of any widely trusted guides of conduct and learning."² She continues with the suggestion that one of the few conditions which we can be sure of in the world of the future is that it will be inhabited by, and decisions will be made by, human beings with the characteristics of those who have lived in the past. "In a world of shifting values and disappearing achievement, then," she believes, "it seems desirable to bend some additional effort to teaching the history of the world's joy and the world's pain in terms of human nature—in terms of biography." Professor Dargan reminds us that "Biography has a universal appeal."³

Williams believes that,⁴

It is essential . . . that in the course of the educative process individuals shall be provided with opportunities to gain experiences which they can receive and incorporate into their lives. It is one mission of the school to select out of race experiences those which, to the best of human knowledge, have done most to aid mankind in its struggle to work out adjustments between man and his world—of things and of other men. One set of experiences which the history of the race leads us to believe has aided mankind in this struggle is that group of experiences which arise out of contact, either actual or vicarious, with other persons.

Williams argues that schools should attempt to build as many experiences as possible into the lives of boys and girls, and that these experiences should include contacts with men and women who have been outstanding "contributors to human welfare." Not all experiences, he recognizes, can be at first hand. Perhaps the majority of them, he states, as well as the more valuable, will have to be vicarious experiences.

Nichols once observed that "Historical forces must work upon persons and through human beings."⁵ It would, of course, be ridiculous to attempt to discuss the values of biography and disregard the role that biography can play in improving the teaching of history. "It would seem clear that the teacher who would have

history live," Schwarz tells us, "who would re-create the conditions and the struggles . . . must find a place for biography."⁶ Carman believes that history loses much of its "magic and meaning" without extensive use of biographical materials—and that nowhere is this more true than in the seventh through the twelfth grades.⁷ Probably no one has ever summarized this need of history for the complementing power of biography as well as Henry Johnson,⁸

Whatever may be thought of this or that specific use of biography or of the materials of biography, history for schools, without emphasis upon the personal element, is in a large sense, as Dr. Sparks suggested that it must be for any untrained reader, "an empty stage. However magnificently set, it is lifeless without the players."

It seems apparent that biography has long been considered an integral part of history and of the social studies. We are not suggesting, however, that the social studies teacher be expected to read all of the many biographical volumes that appear—not even those in the field of American biography. Yet there are two valid reasons why these volumes of American biography are of importance to the social studies teacher, and why, therefore, he should make an effort to read some of them.

First of all, some of these books are so outstanding that educated citizens should be familiar with them. In addition there are few methods of gaining understanding into the personality of others and thus insight into one's own personality, or of gaining perspective on national and world situations in terms of the personal element, that are easier and pleasanter to achieve than through an interest in the reactions, successes and failures of others. Teachers often tend to become wrapped up in the affairs of a single classroom, to think in terms of adolescents and their problems, to lose contact with the adult world about them. The result frequently is a preoccupation with the petty problems and a loss of true perspective and vigorous interest outside one's own affairs.

Secondly, no teacher can afford to ignore the potential usefulness of biography in the classroom to arouse interest, to stimulate think-

ing, to meet the challenge of individual differences, to encourage reading, and to provide understanding and insight into real people and situations. Here is an opportunity to acquaint students with an awareness of the dignity, the frustrations, the successes and the weaknesses of human beings.

The teacher of history who does not understand the complexities of the personality of Alexander Hamilton, the strength and intellectual toughness of John Adams, the resourcefulness and quiet courage of George Washington, can scarcely hope to comprehend or make intelligible to his students the Revolutionary period. In the same manner no discussion of the twentieth century can be competently handled by a teacher unaware of the subtleties of Franklin D. Roosevelt, the idealism of Woodrow Wilson, or the demagoguery of Huey Long.

There may then be said to be two main reasons for teacher interest in recent biographies—to increase understanding of himself and to improve his personality, and secondly to improve his ability as a classroom teacher. Although we will touch on both values, the latter will naturally receive major attention.

PROBLEMS IN REALIZING THE VALUES

The teacher who recognizes the need for biography in terms of the first value noted above has ample assistance in making his selections. If he wishes to be posted on the outstanding biographies that people are discussing he has only to read such media as *The Saturday Review of Literature*, *The New York Times Book Review* or the *New York Herald-Tribune "Books."* Biographies of major stature will usually be reviewed on the front page or at least near the front. The teacher, on the other hand, who would read biography for the personal values to be realized—enjoyment, escape, relaxation or the thrill of mastery—can disregard book review publications, ignore the question of copyright dates and browse on the library shelves for titles or subjects that strike his fancy. If it is mastery he is after he merely directs his reading, over a period of time, to a single person or a period of history.

The question of using biography as a teaching instrument is, on the other hand, a more difficult proposition. Reading a review of a book which appears in an adult newspaper or

magazine is seldom of much help in evaluating the book's usefulness with adolescents. A book may be interesting and valuable to a teacher and of little concern to a student. An ever present difficulty of course is the wide range of student ability and interest. Some biographies can be placed in the hands of students with the knowledge that the subject matter will intrigue the young reader. Other biographies will be read by young people only if there are specific assignments to be followed. A few students will enjoy reading widely about one person or period; others have such a short interest span that it is useless to expect them to complete an entire book. As with individuals, books differ in their effect on readers. Some biographies are interest raisers, others may be used to advantage only after students have achieved some understanding and curiosity about an individual or a situation.

OUTSTANDING BIOGRAPHIES

This discussion of some of the outstanding biographies of the past three or four years will be divided into four chronological periods: the colonial, the years of the Revolution and the founding of the new government, the nineteenth century, and the last fifty years. Not all of the great biographies are mentioned here; the effort has been to select a dozen or fifteen works that, either because of their subject or their author, are of outstanding value. These, in common with all of the books mentioned here (with the exception of the section on juveniles), are adult biographies. All of them are of significance for the teacher; many of them can be used, either in part or with superior students, at the high school level.

THE COLONIAL PERIOD

Bradford Smith's *Bradford of Plymouth*⁹ appeared just before this was written and would seem to be one of the year's more interesting and worthwhile biographies. Americans of 1951, disturbed, uncertain and sometimes fearful, will find refreshment and new courage in this life of a man who knew neither fear nor doubt. Here, in the person of Governor Bradford, is the real Plymouth Rock. Nowhere else in recent literature can the reader obtain either as clear and complete a picture of the founding of the Plymouth colony or so convincing a demonstration of the worth of consecrated

leadership. This is the type of individual in whom young people can find the security, the devotion to a cause and the strength of will to arouse their admiration.

Morris Bishop's *Champlain, The Life of Fortitude*,¹⁰ combines rich scholarship with delightful style in the most superior biographical account of the age of exploration to appear in many years. With the increasing tendency, in both graduate school and undergraduate major, to slight the early years of our history, books of real worth that deal with the period before 1763 become "must" reading for the teacher who deals with American history.

THE REVOLUTION AND THE EARLY REPUBLIC

The Father of our Country has, for a century at least, been shrouded in dignity and aloofness. Few biographers of major ability have dared to tackle the life of Washington. Douglas S. Freeman, certainly one of the two or three finest American biographers now living and noted for his four-volume *Robert E. Lee*¹¹ and his three-volume *Lee's Lieutenants*,¹² has recently published the third and fourth volumes of his *George Washington*.¹³ The canvas he is painting is tremendous. The first two volumes, issued three years ago, discussed Washington's family background, covered his boyhood in colonial Virginia and carried the story through the early years of the French and Indian Wars to Washington's resignation after the fall of Fort Duquesne, his return to the Potomac and his marriage to the wealthy widow, Martha Custis. Volume III, "Planter and Patriot," covers nearly twenty comparatively quiet years, down to the end of 1775. Yet, as Dr. Freeman points out, these were years that moulded the personality of Washington, gave him rich experience in government and witnessed the transformation of a gentleman planter into an ardent patriot. Volume IV, "Leader of the Revolution," brings the story down to Washington's receipt of news of the French alliance. While these volumes are so detailed that the general reader will sometimes feel smothered in trivia, they are indispensable to genuine understanding of George Washington. The grim, silent, humorless man of popular imagination is becoming, under the author's skilled pen, a real human being. Descriptions of campaigns and battles, analyses of military decisions,

recognition of strengths and weaknesses—all give renewed assurance of Dr. Freeman's mastery as military historian and biographer. The superior high school student with a deep curiosity about human beings and a sincere interest in history may be encouraged to dip into these volumes.

Catherine Drinker Bowen, whose previous books included an admirable biography of Oliver Wendell Holmes, has written one of the most readable accounts of the Revolutionary period to appear in many a moon—*John Adams and the American Revolution*.¹⁴ It is to be hoped that she will continue this with one or more volumes to complete the story of the man who has been called "Honest John" but who has, like Washington, appeared grim and uninteresting to most people of our century. This book has life, color and excitement. It is extremely readable and it is based on thorough and careful scholarship. When perhaps fifty college students and teachers-in-service were assigned it as compulsory reading, not one of them failed to tell us how fascinating and worthwhile it was.¹⁵

Irving Brant has recently published the third volume of his study of James Madison—*James Madison, Father of the Constitution, 1787-1800*¹⁶—and there will probably be at least two other volumes. This third volume is by far the most important work on Madison to appear. The new interpretations of his role in founding the anti-Federalist party and drafting the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, to name but two points, deserve the attention of all teachers of American history. In this day when partisan tensions play such a part in the world's insecurity and when the importance of freedom of speech looms very large and very real, teachers and students need to know the full story of these early years of our Republic. Average high school students could use this volume if given specific page and subject assignments. Superior students could plunge into it on their own and emerge, for example, with a new understanding of the Sedition Act.

Three or four years ago Dumas Malone's first volume on Jefferson served notice that at long last the great democrat had fallen into the hands of a worthy biographer. Recently the second volume in what will be a five-volume

life came from the publishers—*Thomas Jefferson and the Rights of Man*.¹⁷ Together with the first volume, *Thomas Jefferson, Virginian*, this provides a full rich and scholarly record of Jefferson's life down to the end of 1792. This is not sensational biography, but it is well written in a quiet and dignified style and will prove interesting to all who recognize the importance of Jefferson's place in our developing tradition. Every chapter seems to give renewed assurance that Professor Malone has steeped himself in the life and times of his subject and that here, at last, is genuine and surprisingly complete understanding.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Turning to the nineteenth century, the most outstanding biography is the late Lloyd Lewis' *Captain Sam Grant*.¹⁸ This was to have been the first in a multiple-volume life of Ulysses S. Grant, and the death of Mr. Lewis (whose *Sherman, Fighting Prophet* was easily one of the very best biographies of an earlier decade) was a real tragedy. His one volume indicates that earlier biographers had missed their chance and that Lloyd Lewis might easily have been the person to give us the first accurate picture of a great and paradoxical American.

Mary Ellen Chase, fine craftsman and excellent novelist, accomplished something of a minor miracle in her life of an obscure person—*Jonathan Fisher, Maine Parson, 1768-1847*.¹⁹ This book is based on thorough research and masterful synthesis, and it brings its subject to life with great vividness. Usually we think of great biographies as limited to the lives of great men. Jonathan Fisher, in any usual sense of the word, was not a great man. Yet many will consider this a truly great addition to our biographical literature.

Occasionally a person whose vocation is in no way connected with history will develop a hobby into an excellent work of historical scholarship. Such is true of Professor Kenneth P. Williams, member of the mathematics department at the University of Indiana. His *Lincoln Finds a General*²⁰ deals with the first half of the Civil War and treats the military leadership of the Union Army with the same completeness and understanding to be seen in a comparable work on the Confederacy—Freeman's *Lee's Lieutenants*. Students of the

Civil War period are looking forward eagerly to the continuation of this work.

Scholars and college professors may well consider Charles Wiltse's three-volume life of *John C. Calhoun*²¹ the most complete and authoritative work to date about the great political thinker of the South and the leading advocate of states' rights. Yet for the average reader and the historian who is not a specialist, Margaret Coit's *John C. Calhoun, American Portrait*,²² a one-volume study which won last year's Pulitzer Prize, is by far the more satisfying book. It is delightfully written, essentially accurate and sound, and teachers of American history at the high school level should certainly read it.

A near-definitive biography of Horace Greeley has never been written. One of last season's biographies, however, is the best we have had on the great newspaperman and friend of freedom. William Harlan Hale's *Horace Greeley: Voice of the People*²³ is readable and interesting. Until someone is willing to spend years in mastering the intricacies of Greeley's life and the period in which he lived, Hale's work is likely to remain our best means of understanding Horace Greeley.

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Since every biography has to be distilled in the alembic of the author's judgment, and since objectivity is so difficult to attain about a contemporary, it is only natural, as Felix Frankfurter has pointed out, that "a contemporary biography too readily invites hagiography or debunking." Perhaps that accounts for the shortage of outstanding biographies of the men of our century. Arthur S. Link of Northwestern University has staked out a claim to Woodrow Wilson with a volume covering the period up to the election of 1912—*Woodrow Wilson, Road to the White House*.²⁴ Frederick Lewis Allen's *The Great Pierpont Morgan*²⁵ is very readable and affords some real insight into the business ethics and the personal drive of his period. Basil Rauch's *Roosevelt, From Munich to Pearl Harbor*²⁶ is about as good a volume on the late President as we are likely to have until the passage of time softens the prejudice and bitterness of the Roosevelt Era. Mention has been made of Robert E. Sherwood's *Roosevelt and Hopkins*.²⁷

Just as this article was being written there appeared what is perhaps the first truly great biography of a man of the Twentieth Century—Merlo J. Pusey's *Charles Evans Hughes*.²⁸ This would seem to be as close to a definitive life as we may have for another fifty years of one of the most brilliant and least appreciated men of the period from 1900 to 1940.

An extremely provocative volume that does not fit into any of the above chronological periods, and which is likely to be overlooked because it is privately printed, is Marshall Fishwick's *Virginians on Olympus* (the author: Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va.; \$2.00). Subtitled "A Cultural Analysis of Four Great Men," the author attempts "to scrutinize closely one aspect of the Virginia mind—its tendency towards hero worship—and answer such questions as these: how and why have Virginians chosen four men [John Smith, Daniel Boone, George Washington and Robert E. Lee] as their leading heroes? How have they preserved their memory and exonerated them from attack? What qualities do the heroes have in common?" Both teachers and superior high school students should find these five essays enjoyable and enlightening.

BIOGRAPHIES FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

It is difficult to do justice, in a small space, to the topic of biographies for young people. Nearly every publisher of books for young people has a rather impressive list of junior biographies. These range all the way from superior books, evidencing sound scholarship and an understanding of what young people need and want, to the imaginative dreams of some authors who produce what we choose to label as "biographical fiction"—volumes in which the author invents conversations and dramatic incidents at will. Some publishers apparently feel that if a book contains a smattering of "true" happenings and others that seem plausible, it is excusable to title the results "biography." On their dust jackets they frequently speak of such books as "true stories." Young people, however, lack both the background and the judgment to evaluate such books. Unless junior biographies are based on sound scholarship rather than on the author's supposition as to the thoughts, frustrations and actions of the subject of the biography,

such books are misleading and possibly dangerous. Much better that the author go the entire way and invent his characters as well as his conversation and action.

Social studies teachers can learn about new biographies through several media: the monthly section edited by Mary Gould Davis in the *Saturday Review of Literature*; the children's page (and special Children's Numbers) of the *New York Times Book Review* and the *New York Herald-Tribune "Books"*; in the review sections of several library journals (most high school librarians probably receive); and in the review sections of many educational magazines. By watching some, or all, of these publications it is relatively simple to build up a file of juvenile titles.

Such a file will, unfortunately, have but limited value. When the teacher accepts the compiling of this list as an initial step, and then over a period of years uses the biographies and records her success and the attitudes of children, she will have a working tool of real value and almost perpetual usefulness.

It is impossible, in an article of this length, to attempt complete coverage of even the better juveniles of recent publication. The following list is merely a selection, offered as evidence of the breadth of possibility:

- Commager, Henry Steele, *America's Robert E. Lee* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin; \$3.00).
- Daugherty, James, *Of Courage Undaunted: Across the Continent with Lewis and Clark* (New York: The Viking Press; \$2.50).
- Daugherty, Sonia, *Ten Brave Men* (Philadelphia: Lippincott; \$2.75).
- Forbes, Esther, *America's Paul Revere* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin; \$3.00).
- Fisher, Dorothy Canfield, *Paul Revere and the Minute Men* (New York: Random House; \$1.50).
- Foster, Genevieve, *Andrew Jackson, An Initial Biography* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons; \$2.00).
- Holbrook, Stewart, *America's Ethan Allen* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin; \$3.00).
- Kantor, MacKinley, *Lee and Grant at Appomattox* (New York: Random House; \$1.50).
- Kelly, Eric P., *The Amazing Journey of David Ingram* (Philadelphia: Lippincott; \$2.50).
- Kjelgaard, Jim, *The Explorations of Pere*

- Marquette* (New York: Random House; \$1.50).
- McSpadden, J. Walker, *Indian Heroes* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell; \$2.50).
- Nolan, Jeannette C., *La Salle and the Grand Enterprise* (New York: Julian Messner; \$2.75).
- Peare, Catherine, *Mary McLeod Bethune* (New York: The Vanguard Press; \$2.75).
- Peckham, Howard, *William Henry Harrison, Young Tippecanoe* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; \$1.75).
- Reynolds, Quentin, *Custer's Last Stand* (New York: Random House; \$1.50).
- The Wright Brothers* (New York: Random House; \$1.50).
- Roos, Ann, *The Royal Road* (Philadelphia: Lippincott; \$2.75).
- Shippen, Katherine B., *Leif Eriksson: First Voyager to America* (New York: Harper; \$2.00).
- Stewart, Anna B., *Enter David Garrick* (Philadelphia: Lippincott; \$3.00).
- Tallant, Robert, *The Pirate Lafitte and the Battle of New Orleans* (New York: Random House; \$1.50).
- Weir, Ruth Cromer, *Leif Ericson, Explorer* (Nashville: Abingdon-Cokesbury; \$1.50).
- Woodham-Smith, Cecil, *Lonely Crusader: The Life of Florence Nightingale* (New York: Whittlesey House; \$3.00).

INTEREST VALUE OF THE UNUSUAL

Most teachers with experience have discovered the charm and interest value that are found in the "unusual." Youngsters who do not enjoy reading, who do not "take" to any of the conventional motivators, who regularly ignore suggestion and discount entreaty, will sometimes be completely captivated by a book which deals with unusual people or situations. One of the maddening things about this interest of young people is that what seems unusual and challenging to one youngster will be shrugged off by another who, on the surface, would seem to have similar interests and experiences. Thus the teacher who would use biographies of unusual people as interest-builders must be prepared to suggest titles in a wide range of subject matter, reading difficulty and presentation. The biographies presented in this section, all of them originally

written for adult audiences, would seem to have value in this connection.

Many boys, and a few girls, of junior and senior high school age are interested in medicine. Elizabeth H. Thomson's story of the life of one of the great surgeons of our time, a man who is also interesting for the breadth of his interests and accomplishments, will appeal to many young people—*Harvey Cushing; Surgeon, Author, Artist*.²⁹ Ellery Thompson has spent a lifetime fishing the ocean off Connecticut's shores and his autobiography will appeal to many youngsters—*Draggerman's Haul; The Personal History of a Connecticut Fishing Captain*.³⁰ Stella Brewer Brookes has written entertainingly of an author loved by many American children — *Joel Chandler Harris—Folklorist*.³¹ Not many textbooks have space to devote to architecture and building; many young people think of these professions or careers as relatively recent in origin. Carl Bridenbaugh's beautifully written and illustrated *Peter Harrison; First American Architect*³² should be welcomed by many high school students.

There has always been, and probably always will be, much interest on the part of young people in the opening of the American West. Four recent biographies deal with this area; all of them contain the unusual and the romantic; high school students would, in many instances, read them with interest. The books referred to are LeRoy R. Hafen's *Ruxton of the Rockies*³³ which describes travels in the American southwest in 1846 and abounds in colorful detail; Lloyd Haberly's life of one of the greatest of the artists who tried to put on canvas the drama and excitement of the West, *Pursuit of the Horizon; A Life of George Catlin, Painter and Recorder of the American Indian*³⁴; the story of the last of the great mountain hunters and individualists, a man in the tradition of Jim Bridger—J. Frank Dobie's *The Ben Lilly Legend*³⁵; and J. Evetts Haley's *Jeff Milton; A Good Man With A Gun*.³⁶

Military and naval history and biography appeal to many boys and to at least a few girls. Earl Schenck Miers, *The General Who Marched to Hell*,³⁷ a biography of General Sherman and his "march to the sea," is unusual in approach and develops a high degree of interest. Scholars

will criticize it both for the omissions and the emphasis, but that needn't affect the judgment of youngsters—what is there is basically sound. It should be useful at the high school level. Fletcher Pratt has written two "collective" biographies which are worth noting at this point. Adult biography, they have an interest appeal which should make them useful with good readers at the high school level—*Preble's Boys: Commodore Preble and the Birth of American Sea Power*³⁸ and *Eleven Generals*³⁹.

Fred C. Kelly's *The Wright Brothers*⁴⁰ is a reissue of an authorized biography first published eight years ago. Aviation is so close to the heart of most American boys that it would seem wise to add a book like this to the school library. Gene Fowler's *Schnozzola; The Story of Jimmy Durante*⁴¹ is a light, amusing story in the Fowler vein. It might have usefulness with some youngsters.

COLLECTIVE BIOGRAPHY

Collective biography—or books which contain the lives of two or more people, usually persons who had something in common—has merit for the social studies teacher. Such books can be used to show the relatedness of history, to provide group work (the different chapters or sections can be assigned to students who can then meet to discuss the person covered in their chapter and to prepare a composite report) to give variety for slow students whose interest span is short or whose reading rate is so slow that they would seldom finish more than one book on any subject. Eight such biographies, published within the last two or three years, are mentioned below.

One of the difficulties that many social studies teachers have experienced is that of finding reading material to interest girls. Margaret Farrand Thorp's *Female Persuasion*⁴² tells of "Six Strong-Minded Women": Catherine E. Beecher, Jane G. Swisshelm, Amelia Bloomer, "Grace Greenwood," Louisa S. McCord and L. Maria Child. Nina Moore Tiffany's *Pathbreakers*⁴³ is an interesting little volume that includes a study of six lives "devoted to the struggle for genuine human equality and brotherhood-in-action." The six "pathbreakers" are William Ellery Channing, Harm Jan Huidekoper, Theodore Parker, Samuel Gridley Howe, Julia Ward Howe and Ralph Waldo Emerson.

William B. Hesseltine's *Confederate Leaders in the New South*⁴⁴ will prove interesting to many, especially readers in that section. Daniel Aaron's *Men of Good Hope; A Story of American Progressives*⁴⁵ discusses Emerson, Parker, Henry George, Edward Bellamy, Henry Demarest Lloyd, William Dean Howells, Thorstein Veblen, Theodore Roosevelt and Brooks Adams. Charles A. Madison, author of an excellent collective biography of liberals and radicals titled *Critics and Crusaders*, has recently made a study of labor leaders—*American Labor Leaders; Personalities and Forces in the Labor Movement*.⁴⁶ Sixteen essays deal with as many labor leaders, ranging in point of time from William H. Sylvester to the present, and varying in philosophy from Uriah Stephens to Harry Bridges.

A. E. Zucker's *The Forty-Eighters; Political Refugees of the German Revolution of 1848*⁴⁷ is the work of ten capable scholars, representing several subject-matter fields. It is the first thorough and complete study of the German liberals who came to our shores after the failure of their revolution in 1848. Dorothy Dillon's *The New York Triumvirate; A Study of the Legal and Political Careers of William Livingston, John Morin Scott and William Smith, Jr.*,⁴⁸ brings together the lives of three men who had almost identical backgrounds, who worked closely together for many years, and then drew apart in the heated arguments that preceded our Revolution. Detailed biographies of nine naturalists are among the material presented in Joseph Ewan's *Rocky Mountain Naturalists*.⁴⁹

THE MATERIALS OF BIOGRAPHY

Young people who become interested in biography because they find people, or a particular person, fascinating will often enjoy discussing the methods of biography and the sources of material which biographers use. This, of course, is the type of intellectual exercise which only better students will commonly engage in. For that very reason it presents alluring possibilities to the social studies teacher. Too often our resolve to work with individual differences takes the form of attention to the slow student. Superior students at the high school level who became interested in the Civil War and then in General Grant might go on to read Lewis' *Captain Sam Grant* (mentioned above). A wise

teacher might introduce such students to *Letters from Lloyd Lewis*,⁵⁰ a fascinating little book which contains letters written to his editor by Lewis during the years he was working on the Grant biography. They present many side-lights into the working habits of a top-notch biographer.

Likewise, students who have been reading biography will often move on to autobiography, collections of letters, selections of writing, and similar "materials of biography." Some of the more noteworthy of such books, recently published, are noted below.

William Greene Roelker has edited *Benjamin Franklin and Catharine Ray Greene, Their Correspondence, 1755-1790*,⁵¹ of interest to those working in the social and intellectual history of the late eighteenth century. Few persons of the Revolutionary and post-Revolutionary period are so interesting as Dr. Benjamin Rush, yet few textbooks have space for more than a few sentences about him. Lyman H. Butterfield's edition of *The Letters of Benjamin Rush*⁵² and George W. Corner's edition of *The Autobiography of Benjamin Rush; Signer of the Declaration of Independence and America's Most Distinguished Eighteenth Century Physician*,⁵³ provide a wealth of information about Dr. Rush.

No mention of the sources of biography would be complete without referring to one of the most stupendous undertakings of scholarship in our century. Under the editorship of Dr. Julian Boyd, financed in part by a generous grant from the *New York Times*, Princeton University Press is embarked on a project to present the complete writings of Thomas Jefferson, together with many of the letters addressed to him. Four volumes of *The Papers of Thomas Jefferson*⁵⁴ have already been published. It is expected that they will be published at the rate of four volumes a year, and that the entire project will run to fifty volumes. The quality of the editing is superior to anything we have ever seen.

Saxe Commins' *Basic Writings of George Washington*⁵⁵ is a useful one-volume collection that contains many items of interest. Students who browse in a volume of this type will often acquire a new attitude toward history. Janet Whitney has prepared a new and corrected

edition of *The Journal of John Woolman*.⁵⁶ Notable for its style as well as for its content, this journal provides real insight into the mind and heart of a noble man. Eric Robson of the University of Manchester in England has edited for their first publication a revealing series of letters—*Letters from America, 1773-1780; Being the letters of a Scots officer, Sir James Murray, to his home during the War of American Independence*.⁵⁷

Another venture of major importance is Harvard's publication, under the editorship of Elting E. Morison and his associates, of *The Letters of Theodore Roosevelt*.⁵⁸ Originally to run to eight volumes, four of them have already appeared. They provide choice exposures of the mind, heart and action of "Teddie." The letters of "the other Roosevelt" are brought to completion with Elliott Roosevelt's edition of *F.D.R.: His Personal Letters, 1928-1945*.⁵⁹ *My First Eighty-Three Years in America: The Memoirs of James W. Gerard*⁶⁰ provide many novel glimpses of important events in the early years of this century.

Walter Millis, with the collaboration of E. S. Duffield, has edited *The Forrestal Diaries*.⁶¹ Here is a dramatic and important record of a five year period that began in 1944, when German might was still awesome, with insight into the life and thoughts of one of the more gallant of those Americans who made the supreme sacrifice.

ASSOCIATION

Just as reading several biographies of the same person, or of different persons in the same field, will give a sense of achievement, added interest and enjoyment to an adult, so association may be used to make the reading of a student more meaningful and interesting. With the superior student, one who is too seldom challenged in our made-for-mediocrity education, this type of reading has real possibilities. An assignment, or better yet an invitation to read two or three books about the same person and to compare them will challenge many a superior student. It will add to his background knowledge, enlarge his understanding and perhaps lead on to a level of work more in line with his ability. There are also possibilities in connection with group work. Two or three good students may be asked to read as many books

about the same person and then to meet and discuss their reading. Sometimes it is even more effective if such assignments include biographies of two or more persons who were associates or rivals. A few examples of books suitable for such assignments and taken from recent biographical literature, are given below.

George Thomas had been, until two years ago, one of the most neglected of the top ranking generals of the Civil War. Then, within a few weeks of each other, appeared two excellent studies of his life and generalship—Richard O'Connor's *Thomas, Rock of Chickamauga*⁶² and Freeman Cleaves' *Rock of Chickamauga; The Life of General George H. Thomas*.⁶³ These two, read in connection with the colorful biography of *The Gallant Hood*⁶⁴ by John P. Dyer, would increase both the interest in history and the understanding of personality and character for many a high school boy.

Most social studies teachers lament the adolescent girls. Two books by the late Carl Van Doren might appeal to some girls, especially those with higher than average intelligence and reading ability. They may be used by an alert teacher to couple the interest in Benjamin Franklin, which is easily aroused, with an exploration into the life and thinking of the women of the late eighteenth century. *Jane Mecom, The Favorite Sister of Benjamin Franklin: Her life here first fully narrated from their entire surviving Correspondence*,⁶⁵ and *The Letters of Benjamin Franklin and Jane Mecom*⁶⁶ have much of interest and information for both teacher and student.

Four volumes, dealing with the last quarter of the eighteenth century, that may be used in several different combinations for "associational" reading are: Louis Gottschalk's *Lafayette Between the American and the French Revolutions, 1783-1789*⁶⁷; Marie Kimball's *Jefferson, The Scene of Europe*⁶⁸; David Loth's *The People's General: The Personal Story of Lafayette*⁶⁹; and John Richard Alden's *General Charles Lee, Traitor or Patriot?*⁷⁰

Military history and boys seem to go together, and for many years to come numbers of adolescent boys are going to be genuinely interested in World War II. Two of the top American commanders in that war have recently published their memoirs. A superior student

might be asked to compare them, or two or more students might read parts of them and then discuss the different approaches to the same problem or the same engagement—Mark W. Clark's *Calculated Risk*⁷¹ and Omar N. Bradley's *A Soldier's Story*.⁷²

A girl with a genuine interest in poetry, more specifically in the poetry of Emily Dickinson, but with little regard for history, might be led along the paths of critical thinking by means of two recent books about one of the greatest of our women poets—Theodora Van Wagenen Ward's edition of *Emily Dickinson's Letters to Dr. and Mrs. Josiah Gilbert Holland*⁷³ and Rebecca Patterson's *The Riddle of Emily Dickinson*.⁷⁴

Or, again, a boy might be led from a whale—one particular whale, Moby Dick—to those same paths of critical thought and appraisal. Within a few months there have been published three excellent books about the author of *Moby Dick*: Newton Arvin's *Herman Melville*,⁷⁵ one of the *American Men of Letters Series*; William H. Gilman's *Melville's Early Life and Redburn*⁷⁶; and Jay Leyda's massive, two-volume *The Melville Log; A Documentary Life of Herman Melville*.⁷⁷

¹ "The Significance of Biography," introduction to James C. Johnston's *Biography: the Literature of Personality* (New York: Century, 1927), xx-xxi.

² Katherine Elizabeth Crane, "Teaching American Biography," *Social Education*, I: 421.

³ Marion Dargan, "The Biographical Approach to American History," address before the American Historical Association; manuscript loaned to the writers.

⁴ L. A. Williams, *The Person-Consciousness of a Selected Group of High School Pupils*. (University of California Publications in Education, Volume 6, No. 2, pp. 85-138. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1931.) p. 86.

⁵ Roy F. Nichols, "Biography: The 'Case' Method in History," *The Historical Outlook*, XVII: 271.

⁶ John Schwarz, "The Use of Biography in Teaching Social Studies." Edgar B. Wesley, editor, *The Historical Approach to Methods of Teaching the Social Studies*.⁷ Fifth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia, 1935. p. 94.

⁷ Harry J. Carman, "The Dictionary of American Biography: An Appreciation," *The Historical Outlook*, XXI: 211.

⁸ Henry Johnson, *Teaching History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools, with application to Allied Studies*. (New York: Macmillan, 1940.) p. 144.

⁹ Philadelphia: Lippincott; \$5.00.

¹⁰ New York: Knopf; \$4.00.

¹¹ New York: Scribner's; \$25.00.

¹² New York: Scribner's; \$21.00.

¹³ New York: Scribner's; four volumes now published, \$30.00.

¹⁴ Boston: Little, Brown; \$5.00.

¹⁵ The only other biography to win such unanimous

praise has been Esther Forbes' *Paul Revere and the World He Lived In* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin), not mentioned here because it is an older book.

- 16 Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; \$6.00.
- 17 Boston: Little, Brown; \$6.00.
- 18 Boston: Little, Brown; \$6.00.
- 19 New York: Macmillan; \$4.00.
- 20 New York: Macmillan; two volumes boxed, \$12.00.
- 21 Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; \$6.00 per volume.
- 22 Boston: Houghton Mifflin; \$5.00.
- 23 New York: Harper; \$4.00.
- 24 Princeton: Princeton University Press; \$5.00.
- 25 New York: Harper; \$3.50.
- 26 New York: Creative Age Press; \$4.50.
- 27 New York: Harper; \$5.00.
- 28 New York: Macmillan; two volumes, boxed, \$15.00.
- 29 New York: Henry Schuman; \$4.00.
- 30 New York: Viking; \$3.00.
- 31 Athens: University of Georgia Press; \$4.00.
- 32 Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press; \$6.50.
- 33 Norman: University of Oklahoma Press; \$5.00.
- 34 New York: Macmillan; \$5.00.
- 35 Boston: Little, Brown; \$3.50.
- 36 Norman: University of Oklahoma Press; \$5.00.
- 37 New York: Knopf; \$4.50.
- 38 New York: Sloane; \$5.00.
- 39 New York: Sloane; \$5.00.
- 40 New York: Farrar, Straus & Young; \$5.00.
- 41 New York: Viking; \$3.00.
- 42 New Haven: Yale University Press; \$3.75.
- 43 Boston: Beacon Press; \$2.00.
- 44 Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press; \$2.00.
- 45 New York: Oxford University Press; \$4.00.
- 46 New York: Harper; \$4.00.
- 47 New York: Columbia University Press; \$4.50.
- 48 New York: Columbia University Press; \$3.25.
- 49 Denver, Colorado: University of Denver Press; \$5.00.
- 50 Boston: Little, Brown; \$2.00.
- 51 Philadelphia: The American Philosophical Society; \$3.00.
- 52 Princeton: Princeton University Press; two volumes, boxed, \$10.00.
- 53 Princeton: Princeton University Press; \$6.00.
- 54 Princeton: Princeton University Press; \$10.00 each.
- 55 New York: Random House; \$4.50.
- 56 Chicago: Henry Regnery; \$2.75.
- 57 New York: Barnes & Noble; \$3.00.
- 58 Cambridge: Harvard University Press; \$10.00 each.
- 59 New York: Duell, Sloan & Pearce; two volumes, boxed, \$10.00.
- 60 New York: Doubleday; \$3.50.
- 61 New York: Viking; \$5.00.
- 62 New York: Prentice-Hall; \$4.00.
- 63 Norman: University of Oklahoma Press; \$3.75.
- 64 Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; \$3.50.
- 65 New York: Viking; \$4.00.
- 66 Princeton: Princeton University Press; \$5.00.
- 67 Chicago: University of Chicago Press; \$7.50.
- 68 New York: Coward-McCann; \$6.00.
- 69 New York: Scribner's; \$3.00.
- 70 Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press; \$4.75.
- 71 New York: Harper; \$5.00.
- 72 New York: Holt; \$5.00.
- 73 Cambridge: Harvard University Press; \$4.00.
- 74 Boston: Houghton Mifflin; \$5.00.
- 75 New York: Sloane; \$3.50.
- 76 New York: New York University Press; \$5.00.
- 77 New York: Harcourt, Brace; two volumes, boxed, \$12.50.

The Social Philosophy of the Enlightenment

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(1)

The scientific system of Newton dominated the intellectual life of the 17th and 18th centuries. The influence of Newton spread to all western European countries; in France, Voltaire expressed his admiration for Newton in his *English Letters*, and in 1738, published a book on *The Elements of the Newtonian Philosophy*. Even women were to be instructed in the new system, and for their benefit and edification Count Algrotti wrote *Le Newtonianisme pour les Dames*. Newton dominated the 18th century with the same authority with which Erasmus had reigned during the 16th century, comparable to Einstein's sway over the first part of the 20th century. The method of Newton, which was based upon deduction and

rested upon the belief in the infallibility of mathematics, represented an attempt to find universal maxims that could serve as organizing principles for philosophy and theology. Just as the scholastics used dialectic, so the followers of Newton explored the resources of mathematics.

Perhaps never before in history had the scientists and philosophers expressed such confidence in the powers of reason. Knowledge could investigate all aspects of the universe. Nothing would have to remain mysterious in man's quest for certainty. Rational knowledge was used by the reformers of the 17th and 18th centuries to transform society so that the institutional system would approximate more closely the universal axioms of mathematics.

This outlook represents a mathematician's paradise. Where we see chaos and uncertainty in the external world, the thinkers of the 18th century saw order and stability. Nature became almost as respectable and as rational as Pope's poetry. This attitude formed a healthy reaction against medieval supernaturalism, but it stifled the growth of experimental science, for the followers of Newton believed that the deductive axioms of mathematics were far superior to the specific facts with which empirical sciences are concerned. Nature was divided into a higher and lower realm; the lower realm was non-mathematical, whereas the higher realm obeyed the laws of exact quantitative deduction.

(2)

Philosophy was completely under the sway of the mathematical method. It is interesting to note that Descartes, who generally is regarded as the father of modern philosophy, started his system with a search for an absolute, undeniable principle. He tells us in his *Discourse on Method* that he will constantly analyze and review his thinking, that he will not accept another person's opinion and that he will exclude wishful thinking. At the same time, he will accept mathematical intuition and he will not rebel against the truths of Catholicism, nor will he violate the moral laws of society.

I find that his famous method of doubting is rather limited. It is much easier and safer to doubt the existence of one's self than to challenge the theories of a religious organization. Descartes led modern philosophers along an introspective path, a fact of extreme importance in the development of the modern mind.

Every student of philosophy knows that Descartes found this categorical principle in his statement, "Cogito, ergo sum." I think, therefore, I am. What does it indicate? That thinking characterizes man, that the soul is more important than the physical aspects of life and that the universe is mirrored by the self. "Cogito, ergo sum" expresses the spirit of egocentricity which stamps so much of modern philosophy.

The mathematical method of Descartes exerted a profound influence upon the intellectual development of Spinoza. Spinoza's *Ethics* parallels the Euclidian method of geometry. Spinoza begins with definitions and general

axioms, then deduces propositions from which certain corollaries are drawn. When one compares Aquinas with Spinoza, certain similarities can be seen: both use the deductive method, both believe in the essential validity of definitions, but the great difference is that Spinoza, unlike Aquinas, does not rely upon a preconceived theological system.

Of course, Spinoza's faith in the power of mathematics was exaggerated. He reasoned that if mathematics had been so successful in establishing the laws of physics, why could not mathematics be used as a foundation of a new philosophical system? But, philosophy resists a rigid mathematical determination. Impartial observation of the processes of nature is just as important in critical thinking as mathematical measurement.

Leibnitz, another great rationalist, wanted to found a universal mathematical language. This dream has influenced many philosophers including Bertrand Russell, who wrote his doctor's dissertation on the philosophy of Leibnitz. Leibnitz made a sharp distinction between *a priori* and *a posteriori* truths; *a priori* truths are as eternal as Plato's Ideas and are the goals of real philosophy. Leibnitz wanted to exclude from his system everything that was changing and tied to experience, and with vigor defended the doctrine of innate ideas; here again, the Platonic spirit become only too evident.

The mathematical spirit is important in Descartes' argument for the existence of God. His first argument is quite simple. The principle of "Cogito, Ergo Sum" indicates that I have a clear idea of myself. Now I know that I exist. My idea of God has that same degree of clarity and distinctness; consequently, God must exist.

Note the different use of the word clear. I imagine that even Descartes would acknowledge that there is a semantic difference in the word clarity when representing a reflection of myself and when representing the reflection of God. We might state his argument in a simple form. I have a clear idea of myself, hence I exist. I have a clear idea of God, hence God exists. The logical fallacy of his reasoning is apparent. Modern psychology would even doubt if I have a clear idea of myself; it would show only a bundle of sensations and, in many cases, a split personality.

Another proof is simply a restatement of St. Anselm's ontological argument. We might use the following equation: certain ideas contain immutable properties; for example, a triangle has three angles equal to two right angles. Now the idea of God necessarily involves perfection and existence.

Here the idea of God is derived from a mathematical example. Of course, the reader will see that there is a profound difference between the properties of a triangle and the properties of God. There is no logical reason why one should think of God as imperfect and non-existent. Furthermore, the properties of a triangle are understood in a logical relationship. Even using the analogy of mathematics, the term God would simply have an ideal reality.

In another argument, Descartes shows that if I have a concept of perfect being in my mind that I, as an imperfect being, cannot be the author of this idea and that God, as a perfect being, must be the cause of my idea of perfection.

From a psychological standpoint, the idea of perfection varies according to the cultural system. For example, the Greeks, as we have seen, thought of limited divine beings. This concept of perfection may be simply an illusion like a dream, or it may be based upon accumulative social experiences.

Descartes was not alone in his mathematical faith in proving the existence of God. Leibnitz needed God to account for the monads and, what is even more important, as a reason to justify his own orthodoxy. Spinoza based his whole philosophical system upon the concept of substance which he defined as "that which is in itself and can be conceived through itself alone." God is all-inclusive and he stands in a mathematical relationship with the world. He is the causal principle of the world in the same way that the triangle is the cause of its own three sides. The nature of God is conceived by Spinoza according to geometric conclusions; hence, all personal characteristics are excluded. Mathematical laws rule with deterministic necessity and man's freedom lies in obeying these laws. Even immortality is conceived according to a mathematical fashion, for it is essentially an immortality of reason.

It must not be overlooked that rationalism

rests upon basic dualism. The contradictory spirit is evident in the life of Descartes. He was educated in a Jesuit monastery and was constantly afraid of the inquisition; hence did not publish his book, *Le Monde*, which was based upon the Copernican theory, because it would have been condemned by the church authorities. Leibnitz, likewise, was torn apart by the strife between his religious environment and his scientific interests. He wanted to combine religion and science and mediate between Protestantism and Catholicism—an undertaking which was bound to fail. Spinoza was more emancipated than either Descartes or Leibnitz, but there are still strains of deep religious consciousness and of a certain mysticism in his works.

Metaphysical interests ultimately triumphed over the world of nature in the works of rationalism. Like the scholastics, the rationalists wanted to find immutable principles behind nature. They worshipped the powers of man's mind. Here starts the long tradition of modern idealism, which asserted that the world is my idea, or as Berkeley says, "To be is to be perceived." Thus, philosophy constructed its own Utopian world which lagged far behind the investigations of the physical and natural scientists. Philosophers reigned supreme in the realm of metaphysics, but when they came down to earth, they were often regarded with contempt and ridicule by the more penetrating scientists.

With the rationalists philosophy became academic and more and more lost touch with the social and institutional problems of humanity. Consequently, philosophy, in modern times, has become a rather aloof and sterile occupation.

Empiricism, as championed by John Locke, formed a reaction against the mathematical tendencies of rationalism. Locke emphasized the importance of experience; that the mind is a blank tablet at birth and that no innate ideas exist. But Locke was never emancipated from the assumptions of the epistemology of his time. His was an architectonic system, with simple and complex ideas, with the assumption of substance and of primary and secondary qualities. When he argued about the existence of God he showed his conservatism, for he

(Continued on page 27)

T 19. Sectional Conflict and National Expansion

STUDY OUTLINE

1. Rift over Slavery
 - a. Slavery a political issue (see Topic T16)
 - b. Slavery, c. 1820-1860: decline in North; cotton culture and slavery in South; slave trade—smuggling; extent of slave owning—the plantations; rights and treatment of slaves; Nat Turner Rebellion and consequences; the lot of free Negroes
 - c. Anti-slavery movement: W. L. Garrison, crusader for abolition—his *Liberator*; American Anti-Slavery Society and its locals; literary figures opposed to slavery; anti-slavery propaganda; churches and slavery; “underground railroad”
 - d. Northern reactions to anti-slavery agitation: many won over; others feared undoing Missouri Compromise, harming business, endangering the Union; hostility to abolitionism; resentment toward Negro schools and property
 - e. Anti-slavery movement in national politics: anti-slavery petitions and the gag resolutions—J. Q. Adams’ notable defense of freedom of petition; anti-slavery political leaders—Birney, Chase, Seward; the Liberty and Free Soil parties; the new Republican party
 - f. Outcomes of anti-slavery agitation: hardening opposition to and defense of slavery; sharp political issue of extension of slavery; contributed to secession
2. Decade of Territorial Expansion
 - a. Anglo-American friction over (1) Maine’s boundary—the “Aroostook War” and Webster-Ashburton Treaty; (2) canal rights in Panama region—Clayton-Bulwer Treaty
 - b. Texas and Oregon: the Texas issue—proposed treaty of annexation, 1844; Anglo-American rivalry in Oregon region; Texas and Oregon issues in 1844 election and victory of expansionists—“manifest destiny”; annexation of Texas; Oregon Treaty—Oregon Territory
 - c. Mexican War: the steps to war; campaigns in Mexico, New Mexico, California; Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo—the Mexican cession of lands and the later Gadsden Purchase; war issues in 1848 election—Whig victory
 - d. Extent of U. S. acquisitions, 1842-1853; U. S. boundaries, 1853
3. Slavery Issue in New Territories
 - a. Decisions on slavery in Texas, Oregon
 - b. Proposals on slavery and Mexican Cession: forbid it—the Wilmot Proviso; permit it; apply popular (squatter) sovereignty principle; let courts decide; extend Missouri Compromise Line westward
 - c. Campaign of 1848: party stands on slavery issue; Whig victories
 - d. California: as a Territory; effects of the gold discovery, locally and nationally; California’s opposition to slavery; application for statehood
 - e. Compromise of 1850: issues debated and positions taken by leaders, old and new; passage of Clay’s Omnibus Bill—provisions; outcomes, good and bad
 - f. Campaign of 1852: no real issues; Democratic victory; Whig decline
4. Slavery Issue and War
 - a. Trouble over Compromise of 1850, in North: personal liberty laws and Fugitive Slave Act; “underground railroad”; boycotting Southern goods; belief in the “higher law”
 - b. Filibustering in Cuba: why; significance of Ostend Manifesto

- c. Kansas: how Kansas-Nebraska Act, 1854, reopened slavery issue; bloody struggle to control and organize Kansas—John Brown; the nation aroused; effect upon political parties; election of 1856
- d. Dred Scott Decision: history of the case; the decision and effects upon slavery legislation, upon publicly professed principles; decision’s reception, North and South
- e. Lincoln-Douglas Debates, 1858: issues debated; far-reaching effects
- f. John Brown’s Raid, 1859; consequences
- g. Writings influencing the struggle: New England poets and essayists; Mrs. Stowe’s *Uncle Tom’s Cabin*; Greeley’s *New York Tribune*; Helper’s *The Impending Crisis*
5. War
 - a. Election of 1860: issues, candidates, platforms of the four major parties; consequences of Lincoln’s election
 - b. Secession: by S. Carolina and other states; the Confederate government
 - c. Meeting the crisis: divided opinions, North and South; Buchanan’s views, and unwillingness to take action; Congressional attempts at compromise—Crittenden proposals; Fort Sumter’s fall, and war

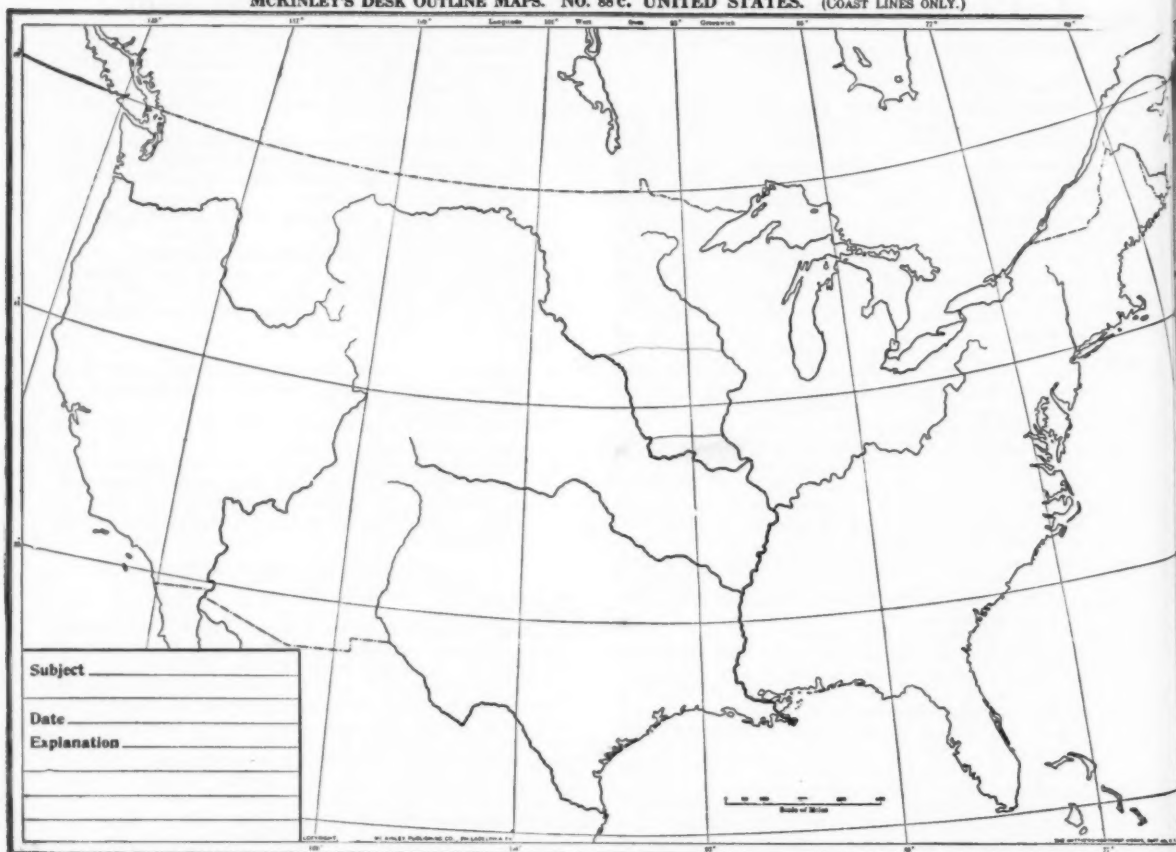
AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

Territorial Expansion of the United States from 1783 to 1853 (16 mm. sound film; 22 min.). International Geographic Pictures; also Eastin Pictures Co.
 John C. Frémont (22 min.); Westward Movement; Flatboatmen of the Frontier; Life in Old Louisiana (11 min. each) (16 mm. sound films; also in filmstrips). Encyclopedia Britannica Films
 A Pioneer Home (16 mm. sound film; 10 min.). Coronet Instructional Films, 65 E. South Water Street, Chicago 1; also Eastin Pictures Co.
 Communications Westward (16 mm. sound film; 30 min.). Teaching Film Custodians
 Remember the Alamo (16 mm. sound film; 39 min.) Eastin Pictures Co.
 The Plantation System in Southern Life (16 mm. sound film; 10 min.). Coronet
 Independence & Annexation of Texas; Building America with Kit Carson; The Westward Migration; Building America with Brigham Young; The Grim Period of Slavery; Young Mr. Lincoln; Abe Lincoln in Illinois; Wells Fargo; Western Union (filmstrips). Pictorial Events
 The Growing Republic—Rise of the New West; Westward Movement and the Rising Slavery Question; Sectional Conflicts; Historic California; Historic Florida; Historic New Mexico; Historic Texas; Historic Utah (filmstrips). Society for Visual Education
 California and the Southwest; Pioneer Life—100 Years Ago; Pioneers and Settlers of the U. S. (filmstrips). Eye Gate House
 Great American Trail Blazers; Pioneers and Settlers of Mexican Territory (filmstrips). Curriculum Films
 Texas; Oregon Territory; Mexican Cession and Gadsden Purchase (filmstrips). Jam Handy Organization
 Pioneers West to the Mississippi; Pioneers On to the Pacific; A Nation Divided (filmstrips). Informative Classroom Picture Publishers
 History of the American Negro, 1619-1865 (filmstrip). Current History Films, 226 E. 22 Street, New York 10; also The Bryant Foundation, 737 N. Edgemont Street, Los Angeles 27, Calif.
 The Advancing Frontier (7 map slides). The Pageant of America Lantern Slides, by Yale University Press

¹ This is the nineteenth of a series of History Topics for American History prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

McKINLEY'S DESK OUTLINE MAPS. NO. 88c. UNITED STATES. (COAST LINES ONLY.)



MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T19: TERRITORIAL EXPANSION, 1783-1853

Bound and label 1. the United States in 1783; 2. each territorial acquisition between 1783 and 1853; 3. in each print the date of acquisition and how and from whom acquired.

HISTORIES

J. W. Burgess, *The Middle Period* (American History Series)

A. C. Cole, *The Irrepressible Conflict* (A History of American Life, vol. 7)

W. E. Dodd, *Expansion and Conflict* (Riverside History of the U. S.)

R. H. Gabriel, *The Lure of the Frontier*; W. Wood and R. H. Gabriel, *The Winning of Freedom* (The Pageant of America, vols. 2, 6)

G. P. Garrison, *Westward Expansion*; T. C. Smith, *Parties and Slavery*; F. E. Chadwick, *Causes of the Civil War*; A. B. Hart, *Slavery and Abolition and National Ideals Historically Traced* (The American Nation, vols. 16-19, 26)

W. MacDonald, *From Jefferson to Lincoln* (Home University Library)

C. L. Skinner, *Adventurers of Oregon*; H. E. Bolton, *The Spanish Borderlands*; N. W. Stephenson, *Texas and the Mexican War*; S. E. White, *the Forty-Niners* (The Chronicles of America, vols. 22-25)

W. Wilson, *Division and Reunion* (Epochs of American History)

S. Burt, *Powder River*; R. P. T. Coffin, *Kennebec: Cradle of Americans*; J. Dana, *The Sacramento*; C. B. Davis, *The Arkansas*; A. B. Fisher, *The Salinas*; J. Gray, *The Illinois*; D. L. Morgan, *The Humboldt*; F. B. Streeter, *The Kaw* (Rivers of

America Series)

J. T. Adams, *Album of American History*, III; T. A. Bailey, *A Diplomatic History of the American People*; C. A. & M. R. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*; R. A. Billington & J. B. Hedges, *Westward Expansion*; R. H. Brown, *Historical Geography of the U. S.*; R. P. Butterfield, *The American Past*; E. Channing, *History of the U. S.*, VI; D. E. Clark, *The West in American History*; M. B. Davidson, *Life in America*; E. Dick, *The Dixie Frontier*; R. L. Duffus, *The Santa Fé Trail*; J. H. Franklin, *From Slavery to Freedom*; S. Holbrook, *Lost Men in American History*; J. B. McMaster, *History of the People of the U. S.*, V-VII; M. McNeer, *The California Gold Rush*; M. Minnigerode, *The Fabulous Forties*; R. F. Nichols, *The Disruption of American Democracy*; F. L. Owsley, *The Plain Folk of the Old South*; P. H. Parrish, *Before the Covered Wagon*; F. L. Paxson, *The Last American Frontier*; J. F. Rhodes, *History of the U. S.*, I, II; R. E. Riegel, *America Moves West*; E. E. Sparks, *The Men Who Made the Nation*; I. Stone, *They Also Ran*; F. J. Turner, *The Frontier in American History*; A. K. Weinberg, *Manifest Destiny*; P. I. Wellman, *Story of the Cattle Range in America*.

Biographies: S. V. Benét, *John Brown's Body*; A. Britt, *The Boys' Own Book of Frontiersmen*; D. S. Garst, *Kit Carson*; L. Lewis, *Captain Sam Grant*;

BOSTON, FRIDAY, APRIL 29, 1842.

[1839.]

Anti-Slavery Almanac.

7



THE NATION'S ACT. MAN AUCTION AT THE CAPITAL. A FREEMAN SOLD.



Abolitionists used many means to attack slavery. Above are examples from an almanac and a heading of *The Liberator*. But anti-abolition sentiment continued strong even in the North, as is shown in the picture of the Philadelphia mob of 1837 that burned down a newly built meeting hall of the abolitionists.

A. Nevins, *Frémont and Emergence of Lincoln*; R. F. Nichols, *Franklin Pierce*; C. Sandburg, *Abe Lincoln Grows Up*; F. W. Seymour, *Boy's Life of Kit Carson and The Boy's Life of Frémont*; C. M. Wiltse, *John C. Calhoun, Nationalist*. Consult the American Statesmen Series and the Dictionary of American Biography

ATLASES

Harper's Atlas of American History; C. L. & E. H. Lord, *Historical Atlas of the U. S.*; C. O. Paullin, *Atlas of the . . . U. S.*, Plates 39B, 49, 67, 68, 91, 93, 94, 123, 162 (J-O), 166

STORIES

B. S. Aldrich, *Song of Years*; V. Angelo, *Hill of Miracles*; I. Bacher, *A Boy for the Ages and A Man for the Ages*; A. Binns, *The Land Is Bright*; H. Chapin, *The Adventures of Johnny Applesseed*; A. C. Darby, *Keturah Came 'Round the Horn and Sometimes Jenny Wren*; J. Eaton, *Narcissa Whitman*; L. Ehrlich, *God's Angry Man*; S. Hargreaves, *The Cabin at the Trail's End*; B. Harte, *Bret Harte's Stories of the Old West*; H. C. Holling, *Tree in the Trail*; E. Hough, *The Covered Wagon and Fifty-Four Forty or Fight*; O. H. Kneen, *Young Pioneers on Western Trails*; A. C. Laut, *The Overland Trail*; J. Loring, *West We Go*; M. Lynn, *Free Soil and The Land of Promise*; V. Quinn, *War Paint and Powderhorn*; E. L. Sabin, *Into Mexico with General Scott*; P. Van D. Stern, *Drums of Morning*; I. Stone, *Immortal Wife*; H. B. Stowe, *Uncle Tom's Cabin and Dred*; J. T. Trowbridge, *Cudjo's Cave*; C. Venable, *All the Brave Rifles*; G. F. Willison, *Here They Dug For Gold*; W. E. Wilson, *Abe Lincoln of Pigeon Creek*

SOURCES

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SLAVERY

A Swedish woman, visiting America, traveled through the South. Some of her observations of slavery are given in the first selection. In the second, Edward Everett Hale described in 1854 the creation of emigrant aid societies to promote the migration of anti-slavery supporters to Kansas in order to control and organize Kansas as a free territory under the terms of the Kansas-Nebraska Act.

A FOREIGN OBSERVER OF SLAVERY

... Besides, the best master is no justification of slavery, for the best master dies sooner or later, and his slaves are then sold to the highest bidder, like cattle. The slaves out in the fields present a joyless appearance; their dark color and their gray dress, without a single white or colored garment to enliven it, give them a gloomy and dull appearance. . . . Quite different is the appearance of our peasants in their white linen, their showy, ornamental attire [in Sweden]. The slave villages, on the other hand, as I have already remarked have rather a comfortable appearance, excepting that one very rarely sees glass in the windows of their houses. The windows generally consist of a square opening, which is closed with a shutter. But so also are those in the houses of the poor white people, and in Carolina there are many such to be met with. In the room one sees, nearly always, a couple of logs burning on the hearth, and the household furniture and little provision stores resemble those which are to be

found in the homes of our poorest people in town and country [of Sweden]. Here and there, however, one sees more attention paid to the house; a little ornament about it, together with well-supplied beds. Every house has a pig-sty, in which there is generally a very fat pig; and many hens and chickens swarm about the garden-plot, in which they grow Indian corn, beans, and different kinds of roots. These little plots, however, do not look very well attended to. The slaves sell eggs and chickens, and every Christmas their pig also, and thus obtain a little money to buy treacle, or molasses (of which they are very fond), biscuits, and other eatables. They often lay up money; and I have heard speak of slaves who possess several hundred dollars. This money they generally place out at interest in the hands of their masters, whom, when they are good, they regard as their best friends, and who really are so. All the slave villages which I saw perfectly resemble each other, only that some of the houses are better, and others worse kept. The slaves are under the management of one or two overseers, appointed by the master, and under these there is, for each village, a driver, who wakes the slaves in the morning, or drives them to work when they are late. The driver is always a negro, and is often the most cruel and the most severe man in the whole plantation; for when the negro is unmerciful, he is so in a high degree, and he is the worst torment of the negroes. Free negroes who are possessed of slaves—and there are such—are commonly the worst of masters. So, at least, I have been told by trustworthy persons. . . .—Frederika Bremer, *The Homes of the New World*, I, 295f.

What bright features of slavery are described? What dark features? Did such features make the fundamental basis for defending or opposing slavery, or did that basis rest on other grounds?

SOCIETIES AIDING EMIGRANTS TO KANSAS

The Emigrant Aid Company of New York and Connecticut organized on the 18th of July [1854], under a charter granted by the legislature of Connecticut at the session of the same summer. Its objects are of the same general character as those of the Boston company. Its affairs are in the hands of a board of twenty-seven trustees, who choose an executive committee of three for their immediate direction. The capital stock of this company is not to exceed five million dollars, to be raised in shares of five dollars each. . . .

These two parent companies propose to send forward trains of emigrants to Kansas as rapidly as possible after the general arrangements for their cheap and safe conveyance have been made. . . .

Local "leagues" or emigrant societies for the detailed care of the arrangements of parties of emigrants have been formed, therefore, in several of the large towns. There are such societies, auxiliary to the "Aid Companies," in New York, in Albany, in Rochester, . . . Each of them should appoint and pay a master of emigration, who may find out all those who wish to move westward in his neighborhood; . . . and, in general, conduct their negotiations with the parent company, without subjecting each man to the necessity of writing himself, and for himself receiving a reply.

Side by side with the associations now described, the Union Emigration Society was organized in the city of Washington, "by such members of Congress and citizens generally as were opposed to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and to the opening of Nebraska and Kansas to the introduction of slavery."

... To all applicants for passage they will be able to furnish passage tickets, . . . They will arrive at a station of the company, where they will meet with friends, and receive such information and general assistance as it is in the power of the company to give them.—Hale, *Kansas and Nebraska*, pp. 230-232.

What facts may have been in the mind of the historian who declared that the Kansas-Nebraska Act was "probably the greatest error which the Congress of the United States ever committed . . .?"

(Continued from page 22)

believed that the knowledge of God could be demonstrated and he accepted the immortality of the soul as a matter of faith. Locke by no means was a philosophical radical; as a spokesman for the middle class and the common sense tradition of English thought, he reflected the sober and moderate spirit of the Glorious Revolution of 1688.

(3)

Voltaire, perhaps, was the most penetrating thinker of the Enlightenment. He fought vigorously against the excesses of religious dogmatism, and he sought to inspire the rulers of his time so that they would establish model governments. Still the essentially conservative bent of his thoughts must be emphasized. Voltaire had two standards: one for the enlightened thinker, applicable to one per cent of humanity, and one for the masses. As he grew older he emphasized again and again that religion is needed to aid morality and to keep the masses in check. From Voltaire's thoughts it can be seen that the Enlightenment was essentially an aristocratic movement.

In Germany, Lessing introduced a new spirit of tolerance and reason by his *Nathan the Wise*, a play which indicated that in Judaism and Mohammedanism as well as in Christianity an equal amount of rationality can be found. His optimism was characteristic of the age and he thought that humanity was moving into higher and higher realms. The German thinkers were more academic than the French encyclopedists, especially in their high regard for Greek culture. Winckelmann stimulated a great interest in Greek culture which he pictured as an impersonal search for beauty, characterized by the ideals of balance, harmony and proportion. His myths about Greek culture produced thousands of volumes with weighty footnotes all imbued with the vague, unverified ideas of Winckelmann. China inspired many of the leading minds, who contrasted her natural system of morality with the artificial standards that prevailed in western Europe. Wolff gave lectures on the moral system of Confucius at the University of Halle, whereupon he was censured by the administration and discharged from his teaching position. The thinkers of the 18th century looked at China through an idealized glass and they saw only rationalistic

factors in Chinese thought. They neglected the mysticism of Lao-tze and the superstitions of the masses as well as the almost eternal corruption of the Chinese governments.

The religious philosophy of this century was also based upon the belief in Reason, for the structure of religion was to parallel the immutable laws of science. Deists turned against miracles and supernaturalism and emphasized the reality of conscience and the need for universal moral standards. The spirit of tolerance spread, although it was limited in many ways; for example, Locke excluded atheists and Catholics in his plea for tolerance, both factions he regarded as enemies of the state. His book, *The Reasonableness of Christianity* should have been entitled, "The Reasonableness of the Church of England," or, "Why the Church of England Represents the Most Perfect Form of Religious Evolution."

In economics, likewise, there was a great faith in mathematical laws. Mercantilism, which stressed state control, a favorable balance of trade, a large navy and the import of raw materials, was being supplanted by the laissez-faire theory. Adam Smith, the apostle of the new capitalistic system, applied Newtonian principles to economics. The main and foremost fact is that of supply and demand, which governs economic life as strictly and as rigorously as Newton's theory of gravity holds sway over physical phenomena. Adam Smith assumed that selfish, private interests correspond to public interests and thus he identified moral excellence with wealth. The government is to abstain from any interference in business. It has only three duties to perform: first, to protect the nation from violence and invasion of other states; secondly, to establish a system of justice which will prevent social anarchy; and thirdly, to erect and maintain certain public works and public institutions. In justice to Adam Smith, it might be pointed out that this system in 1776 was a progressive reaction against the deadening hand of mercantilism.

It is ironical that the philosophy of Adam Smith has exerted such great influence upon western civilization. His theories were based upon vague ethical generalizations, but they appealed to many economists because they established categorical laws which were to be as eternal and immutable as the laws of 18th

century mathematics. In the 20th century, Newtonian mathematics has been displaced by non-Euclidian geometry, quantum physics and the Einstein system of relativity; but in the economic realm, the outmoded Newtonian method is still being used in many parts of the western world.

The mathematical ideal was even stronger in the field of international relations. Now the concept of the balance of power reigned supreme in European diplomacy and England saw to it that no state in Europe upset the power complex. Thus, when France threatened the political balance of the European continent, England intervened and preserved the political equilibrium. Grotius formulated laws in international relations which were supposed to moderate the horrors of warfare and which subjected the relations of the nations to certain recognized forms of conduct. Idealistic thinkers in the 18th century believed that wars could be outlawed and many plans were drawn envisioning a universal commonwealth of nations. Enlightened despots like Frederick of Prussia, Peter of Russia and Joseph II of Austria often followed the advice of the philosophers, but ultimately, their political ambitions proved to be stronger than their intellectual ideals.

Most of the thinkers of the 18th century did not believe in unrestrained democracy; rather, they preferred the government of the middle class. The main purpose of the government, according to Locke, was the preservation of private property. The leaders of the American Revolution had little faith in the common man. John Hancock said, "Security to the persons and properties of the government is obviously the design and the end of civil government." John Adams, the leader of the Federalistic party, believed that the natural aristocracy, the wise, the rich and the good, should rule. Most of the founders of the American Constitution, while very liberal in their theology, were conservative in their economic opinions.

Montesquieu had an abiding influence upon the development of American government and thought by his insistence upon three branches of government. They are to be equal in authority and represent a Newtonian balance. He writes, "In every government there are three sorts of power: the legislative; the executive

in respect to things dependent on the laws of nations; and the executive in regard to matters that depend on the civil law.

"By virtue of the first, the prince or magistrate enacts temporary or perpetual laws, amends or abrogates those that have already been enacted. By the second, he makes peace or war, sends or receives embassies, establishes the public security, and provides against invasions. By the third, he punishes criminals, and determines the disputes that arise between individuals. The latter we shall call the judiciary power, and the other simply the executive power of the state."¹

He warns of the danger of concentrating all governmental power in one person. "When the legislative and executive powers are united in the same person, or in the same body of magistrates, there can be no liberty; because apprehensions may arise, lest the same monarch or senate should enact tyrannical laws, to execute them in a tyrannical manner.

"Again, there is no liberty, if the judiciary power be not separated from the legislative and executive. Were it joined with the legislative, the life and liberty of the subject would be exposed to arbitrary control; for the judge then would be the legislator. Were it joined to the executive power, the judge might behave with violence.

"There would be an end of everything, were the same men or the same body, whether of nobles or of the people, to exercise those three powers, that of enacting laws, that of executing the public resolutions, and of trying the causes of individuals."¹

The Enlightenment looked forward to a new institutional system. Efforts were made by the leading minds of Europe to stamp out slavery, to bring about prison reform, and to better the living standards of the masses. There was a great faith in the possibilities of education. The concept of progress appeared as a liberating force and it indicated how far along man had come from primitive times.

(4)

The intellectual faith of the Enlightenment was undermined by the growth of romanticism. In religion, the Methodist movement stressed an intense emotional awareness of God. The revival meetings that took place along the frontier in the United States contrasted sharply

with the discussions on natural theology which were held by the educated scholars of Philadelphia. During these meetings, thousands were converted through frantic appeals of preachers who gave awe-inspiring descriptions of hell-fire. Emotional excesses reminiscent of the mystery religions of Greece indicated the need for salvation on the part of the masses.

Intellectually, the Enlightenment was undermined by the atheistic materialism of Holbach and by the devastating skepticism of David Hume, who struck at the very basis of reason. He challenged the foundations of religion, morality and science and he stressed, instead, the reality of feeling.

In France, Rousseau became the apostle of romanticism. Rousseau was as neurotic as St. Augustine. He always felt inadequate in dealing with women and for years he lived with Therese Le Vasseur, who was extremely ugly, ignorant, and vulgar; she had a special liking for stable boys. He had five children by her, all of whom were brought up in a foundling hospital. He abandoned his friends when they were in need and changed his political and religious allegiances several times. In spite of all these failings, Rousseau spoke about the goodness of man and outlined a new system of education.

His basic idea was that civilization had been corrupted by the arts and sciences. Seldom has a thinker celebrated the virtues of the savage with as much enthusiasm as Rousseau. He believed that the institutions of civilization were essentially degenerate forces. Naturally his contemporaries and followers needed little encouragement to go back to primitive forms of behavior. It is true that he stressed the need for democracy, but, at the same time, his doctrine of the "general will" gave a ready justification for dictatorship. Like Plato he favored a puritanical censorship and opposed atheism as the worst of crimes. Thus his religion, as well as his moral system, was based upon his emotional life.

In education, he opposed the prevalent theories of formal discipline, for the parents, nurses and teachers were constantly instilling restraints and complexes into the child. Their tyrannical control made the child selfish and gave him a slave complex; Rousseau assumed

that if the child were left alone, it would develop in a magnificent manner.

What, then, is the goal of education? Rousseau answers by saying that the native interests of the child are to be encouraged and that his development is to be spontaneous. Shield the child from the superstitions and the vices of the parents, protect him from the hypocrisy and artificiality of his environment. Do not use punishments or appeals to moral obligations, for the child is naturally good and punishment only perverts its nature.

The contrast between Voltaire and Rousseau is remarkable: Voltaire, urbane and skeptical; Rousseau, fanatical and full of faith. When an earthquake shattered the city of Lisbon in 1755, Voltaire was rather doubtful regarding the providential government of the world. Rousseau did not doubt for a minute the inscrutable power of God. Why should not such disasters occur from time to time? If only the people of Lisbon had followed his advice and had lived like noble savages instead of dwelling in houses seven stories high. Let them return to the woods and the earthquake would not harm them.

Rousseau, in his irrationality, best represents the intellectual trends of the romantic movement. He emphasized the emotional nature of man and opposed the balance and moderation of classicism. He worshipped the great genius and, at the same time, found qualities of goodness in the common man.

I have little sympathy with the romantic movement. I can see why it reacted against the sterile and formal pattern of classicism. I can see why the romantic poet rebelled against the conventions of stereotyped industrial society; but, intellectually, I cannot see the Middle Ages as a period of knighthood, as Sir Walter Scott portrayed it, nor can I worship the artistic attitude of the medieval spirit as the pre-Raphaelites did. I believe that romanticism turned back the clock of western civilization and opened the door to new and even more brutal superstitions than had heretofore plagued the western mind.

It is strange that when industrialization was sweeping over Europe and when the scientific method was beginning to make headway this rebellion should have developed so strongly.

Submission to scientific control was needed to preserve the balance of civilization. But romanticism started a rebellion against the very

foundation of science and reason.

¹ Montesquieu, *The Spirit of Laws* (World's Greatest Literature) Vol. XI, pp. 150-154.

World History by Units for Secondary Schools

WINIFRED B. FOSTER

James S. Deady Junior High School, Houston, Texas

UNIT XI. WORLD WAR II. 5 Weeks.

Specific Aims:

1. An understanding of how most of Europe fell under Nazi power.
2. An understanding of why Hitler turned against Russia.
3. An understanding of U.S.-Japanese relationships leading to war.
4. An understanding of Big Three meetings and planning.
5. An understanding of the forces which brought about the close of war.
6. An understanding of the organization and work of the U.N.
7. An understanding of the "cold war" and the forces which brought it on.

Introduction:

We have already studied the forces which led to war again after twenty years of peace. In this unit you will follow the slow course of the war toward victory. You will see the allied side in defeat and discouragement at first, then in final victory. You will learn of the Big Three meetings and plans. You will learn also of the secret agreements and concessions to Russia at these meetings—things which have come to light since the close of the war and which have been partly the cause of the "cold war" between East and West. Finally, you will learn of the United Nations,—its organization, its work and its importance today.

Outline Survey of Unit:

WORLD WAR II

I. Europe falls under the Nazi terror

A. Poland

1. Luftwaffe controls air in 2 days

2. Russia moves in from East

B. Baltic states and Finland taken by Russia

1. Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania
2. Demands on Finland—half southern productive region, Viipuri, 1/10 of population

C. Denmark and Norway conquered

1. Germany gained harbors and bases for her ships and subs
2. Germany gained air bases
3. Barrier against attack from north
4. Food, supplies, gold
5. Deprived Britain of Danish butter, eggs, bacon

D. Holland, Belgium, Luxembourg

1. Dutch royal family escapes to England
2. Dunkirk
3. Nazis gain industries, shipyards, iron ore
4. Nazis gain channel ports—air and sub bases close to England
5. King Leopold of Belgium

E. France overwhelmed

1. Hitler's drive against "Weygand Line"
2. Mussolini enters the conflict
3. France gives up—terms of armistice
4. DeGaulle leads the Free French
5. Petain and Laval head French government at Vichy, under Hitler
6. Fate of French fleet—Nazis get fully armed vessels—English destroy portion of fleet

F. Britain rides the storm

Editors Note: This is the sixth group of units in an eleven-unit outline for a one-year World History course for high schools.

1. Britain weakest—but Hitler hesitates
 - and England prepares
 - a. Why Hitler hesitates
 - b. How England prepares
2. The Luftwaffe strikes—hundreds of bombers daily
 - a. Test of R. A. F.—defense, keep open supply lanes, offense against distant targets—Berlin
 - b. Britain's battle for survival, bombing of cities
- G. Balkans overrun; Africa
 1. Hitler changes plans—cut off England's supply lanes and come back to London later
 2. Italy tries to take a hand
 3. New Order spreads in Balkans
- H. Invasion of Russia
 1. Fear of Russia made necessary army in East—so couldn't guarantee German victory in West
 - a. Russia not delivering promised raw materials
 - b. Russia not pledging to respect "New Order"—beat Russia before attack on Britain
 2. Blitzkrieg on Russia without even declaration of war—Italy, Hungary, Rumania, Vichy, and Spain stand by Hitler
 - a. Early success in North — but Leningrad holds out
 - b. Conquest of Ukraine — finally comes to halt
 - c. Moscow holds out—Germans on outskirts
 3. Germans retreat—pursued by Soviet
 - a. Leningrad and Moscow not taken
 - b. Oil of Caucasus not reached
 - c. Soviet army not destroyed
 - d. Russia not conquered
- II. War Becomes World-wide — enter the U.S.A.
 - A. The U.S. and the war—growing discord with Germany
 1. Japanese attack not expected
 2. German attack felt a possibility on account of:
 - a. "Cash and carry" plans fail to include Germany—blockade
 - b. Defense plans—build up military resources, Pan-American cooperation, aid to Britain
 - c. Lend-Lease Act
 - d. German and Italian consulates closed—May, 1941
 - e. Atlantic Charter—August, 1941—no territorial gains, rights of all peoples to choose own government, equality of all nations in access to trade and raw materials—"freedom from fear and want"
 - f. American ships being sunk
- B. Japan prepares to rule East
 1. U.S. protests invasions of China and danger to Americans
 2. U.S. cancels trade treaty with Japan—no war materials
 3. Rumor of Pearl Harbor attack reported by Grew, Jan., 1941
 4. New Jap ambassador quiets rumors—wants U.S. to press China
 5. Japs move into Indo-China—U.S. protests danger to Philippines
 6. Tojo becomes premier—more talks to gain time
 - a. Japanese proposals—Nov. 20
 - b. President's proposals—Nov. 26
 - c. Pearl Harbor attacked—Dec. 7
 7. U.S. and Britain declare war on Japan
 8. Germany and Italy declare war on U.S.
- C. United Nations—Jan. 1, 1942—26 nations—pledge support of Atlantic Charter, military aid against Axis, no separate peace
- D. Japanese successes
 1. Pearl Harbor a major military disaster—3077 officers and men lost, 8 battleships damaged, 11 other ships hit. 150 planes
 2. British lose 2 capital ships off Singapore—Dec. 9
 3. Cutting the line to Philippines—Guam, Wake
 4. Philippines invaded — airfields attacked, naval base rendered useless by bombing, troops take Manila Jan. 2; Corregidor surrendered May 5 by Wainwright
- E. Japanese Conquests

1. Hong Kong—water supply cut
 2. Singapore—approached from land side
 3. Burma—get bases of attack on India, cut off supplies to China over Burma road
 4. Dutch East Indies— $\frac{1}{2}$ world's tin; $\frac{3}{4}$ world's rubber
 5. New Guinea and Solomons—needed as bases of attack against Hawaii, New Zealand, Australia
 - a. Landing in New Guinea
 - b. Battle of Coral Sea—Jap advance halted at great cost
 - c. Midway battle—first decisive defeat suffered by Jap navy in 350 years; removed threat to Hawaii and U.S.
 - d. Solomons—Guadalcanal (6 months battle)
- F. War in West
1. U.S. shipyards step up production
 2. Growing control of air
 - a. R.A.F. grows in number and strength; bombing raids
 - b. Daylight raids—precision bombing
 - c. American Flying Fortresses—Aug. 17.
 3. Russia holds out
 - a. Hitler takes personal responsibility—appeals for blankets and clothing
 - b. Germans retreat partially—prepare for second drive in spring against southern Russia to reach Volga and close supply lane
 - c. Germans gain control of Black Sea
 - d. Stalingrad — bombed to ruins, Soviet counterattack forges iron ring around Sixth German Army, trapping 22 divisions in city, 14 German divisions trapped in Don Bend
- III. The Beginning of the End—turning of tide, Fall, 1942
- A. Africa
1. Allies land in Africa—850 ships—surprise
 - a. Eisenhower in command
 - b. French loyal to Vichy regime—
- Allies fight French and succeed in landing in Morocco and Algeria
2. Tunisian struggle — Africa “redeemed”—springboard to Europe
- B. Europe—Russia begins to drive back Germans on all fronts
1. Ukraine
 2. Leningrad
 3. Moscow
- C. Surrender of Italy
1. Invasion and conquest of Sicily, downfall of Mussolini; Italy surrenders
 2. Invasion of Italy—to fight Germans
 - a. Salerno, Naples, Rome
 - b. Slow advance northward—rivers, bad weather
- D. Yalta
- E. Pacific Area—Allies move forward—offensive taken
1. New Guinea—Allies advance but enemy still strong
 2. Aleutians—Attu and Kiska—near Alaska
 3. Solomons—central and northern
 4. New Guinea again—advance continued
 5. Gilbert Islands — Tarawa, island captured
- IV. Victory at Last
- A. Second Front—Normandy, June, 1944
1. Preparations — Eisenhower and Bradley in command
 2. The big air battle—Feb. 20-26, 1944—80% of German twin-engine production and 60% fighter production destroyed
 3. D-Day Prelude
 - a. Destruction of Atlantic Wall—defenses, air depots, dumps
 - b. Destruction of communications—100 miles of coast
 - c. Shuttle bombing—between Britain, Russia, Italy
 - d. Blasting of chosen area—night of June 5.
 4. D-Day—June 6, 1944—Normandy
 - a. Airborne division drops behind Atlantic Wall in night
 - b. Mine sweepers clear channel in night

- c. 4000 ships off Normandy coast at dawn
- d. Commandos and Rangers cut path for invaders
- e. Tanks, bulldozers, infantry follow, covered by an umbrella of planes and preceded by bombers ranging inward
5. Dangers—weather, mines and U-boats, fire of enemy
6. Magnitude of task—60 types of landing craft and escort vessels; 700,000 kinds of articles; engineers to build harbors, bridges, roads; 11,000 first-line planes; $\frac{1}{4}$ million men in 24 hours; mountains of supplies; hundreds of thousands of vehicles
- B. Battle for France
 1. Cherbourg—a port is secured
 2. Caen—railway junction is taken
 3. No counter attack from Nazis—Allies control air
 4. Liberation of Western Europe—mostly France
 5. War nears Germany—her Allies begin to fall away
- C. Beginning of the Battle for Germany—Sept. 12.
 1. "West Wall"—"dragon's teeth," pill boxes, gun emplacements
 2. Drive on Ruhr and Saar
 3. German counter attack—aided by foggy weather which grounded Allied planes—Battle of the Bulge
 4. Germany loses allies—Rumania, Finland, Bulgaria, Hungary
 5. Greece and Albania liberated—forces from Italy
- D. War in Japan
 1. New Guinea conquest completed
 2. Marianas seized—Philippine Sea, Saipan, Guam
 3. Carolines—western
 4. Philippines—Leyte, Luzon
 5. Iwo Jima
 6. Okinawa—needed as bases of attack against Japan
- E. Battle for Germany completed, May, 1945
 1. Red armies attack from East—Germany caught in a vise
 2. Battle for Rhine—bridges burned and blown up, except one—Allies cross Rhine
 3. Blitzkrieg on German soil—from both sides
 4. Italy joins fight
 5. Allies meet in Saxony
 6. Germany surrenders May 7, 1945
- F. V-E Day—May 8, 1945
- G. Japan defeated, August, 1945
 1. Long struggle in Burma—the Stilwell road
 2. China takes offensive
 3. East Indies invaded
 4. Okinawa and Philippines fighting practically finished
 5. Bombing of Japanese cities—Japan warned
 6. Atomic bomb on Hiroshima—August 6.
 7. Russia declares war on Japan—August 8
 8. Atomic bomb on Nagasaki—August 8.
- H. V-J Day—August 14, 1945
 1. Japan accepts Potsdam terms and Allied note
 2. Japan signs surrender — Sept. 2 aboard *Missouri*

Suggested Class Activities:

1. Text reading as basis of discussions.
2. Study of recent magazine articles.
3. Reading of available material on the war.
4. Discussions based on outlines and readings.
5. Oral reports on readings.
6. Map studies.
7. Class development of outline on the United Nations. (The outline survey of unit does not include this material, but it should be found and studied.)
8. Develop outline of Big Three Conferences.

Suggested Home Work Activities:

1. Map—*United Nations Members*.
2. Chart—*The United Nations Organization*. Compare with earlier chart on League of Nations.
3. Map—*Europe, 1950*. Color the nations. Show the zones of Germany.
4. Map—*World Powers, 1950*. Show in color the major powers and their possessions.
5. Read references on the war. Make book

- reports wherever possible. Prepare oral reports.
6. Topics for special reports and study.
- Dunkirk
 - King Leopold
 - Pétain and Laval
 - Atlantic Charter
 - Pearl Harbor
 - Guadalcanal
 - American Flying Fortresses

- R.A.F.
- Stalingrad
- Yalta
- Teheran
- D-Day
- Battle of the Bulge
- Iwo Jima
- Okinawa
- The Stilwell Road
- The Atomic Bomb

A Brief Summary of What the Bill of Rights is Not

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West Texas State College, Canyon, Texas

There are many popular misconceptions concerning the "Bill of Rights." It is unfortunate to believe that certain things are in the Bill of Rights that are non-existent, and it is equally unfortunate to underestimate the true significance of what is contained there. Perhaps a few examples will illustrate how this oft-cited document of civil liberties differs from other laudable, yet unenforceable, documents.

When the term "Bill of Rights" is used different people think of different things. To some the term brings to mind an unorganized mass of "rights" that the citizen has because they have been custom from generation to generation. Other people think of the "Bill of Rights" as all of the statements concerning civil rights or personal freedoms that are contained in any public document, such as the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, laws passed by Congress, and Presidential proclamations. It is this second group of people who do not recognize the distinction between the legally enforceable civil rights and the mere statements of lofty ideals as expressed in such declarations as "freedom from want" and "freedom from fear,"¹ or the equally elusive "right" to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."² There is a third group that use the term "Bill of Rights" to apply only to the first ten amendments of the national constitution; and possibly to the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth amendments. It is in this

third sense which the term will be used here.

In the first place, the Bill of Rights is not a grant of power to the citizen made by the government. If this were true there would be no inherent personal rights based on the natural law. The constitutional listing would be considered by the courts to be exhaustive, and all other rights non-enforceable short of constitutional amendment. Fortunately we were not *given* anything by the Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights is actually a harness fashioned by the people to restrict the power of government. It removes all doubt that agents of government are prohibited from unreasonably interfering with the personal liberties listed there. Woodrow Wilson once said, "Liberty has never come from government. Liberty has always come from the subjects of it. The history of liberty is a history of resistance. The history of liberty is a history of limitations of government power, not the increase of it."³

In the second place, the Bill of Rights is not designed to protect personal liberties from all persons. The shackles are placed on the hands of agents of government only. This does not mean that private citizens are free to infringe upon the personal liberties of other people—they may be restrained by statutory law—but it does mean that only agents of government are liable to prosecution for violating the Bill of Rights. Because of the lack of understanding of this principle, many people cannot

understand why mobs and organized groups of citizens cannot be punished if they interfere with the freedom of speech, religion, or assembly of another private citizen.⁴ These groups have not violated any provision of the constitution—nor could they violate any of its provisions—therefore they are not liable to prosecution by the national government. The local sentiment within each jurisdiction will determine what action, if any, will be taken by the local agents of law and order.

On a third point there is even more confusion than on the first two. It is difficult for some to grasp the concept that the Bill of Rights is not inconsistent with some limitation of personal liberty. Or to state the principle in another way, the Bill of Rights is not an absolute guarantee of any personal liberty. Well meaning, but misinformed, writers and public speakers glibly recite the glories of the "freedom of religion," "freedom to assemble," and the "freedom from unreasonable searches and seizures."⁵ No one doubts that we have more freedom than that of the citizens of any other country, but this does not mean that the Bill of Rights sanctions unbridled freedom. Freedom is a relative term rather than an absolute one. Mr. Justice Sutherland expressed the opinion of the Supreme Court on this topic some years ago when he said, "The liberty of the individual to do as he pleases, even in innocent matters, is not absolute."⁶ Or in other words, the fact that the Bill of Rights guarantees a certain thing does not mean that an individual may engage in that particular activity free of all governmental restraint. "Freedom of religion" does not allow persons to refuse to serve in the armed forces, or to ignore the laws prohibiting polygamy.⁷ "Freedom to assemble" does not exempt religious groups from obtaining permits before conducting parades on the city streets.⁸ The Bill of Rights prohibits unreasonable searches and seizures, and yet the United States Supreme Court recently permitted agents of the Federal Bureau of Investigation to take evidence from an office without a search warrant.⁹ Of course, in each of these cases the defendant was reminded that at times when it is necessary to protect the safety of the general public, the personal liberty of private citizens may be

reasonably interfered with. Then it becomes the duty of the courts to determine whether the rights of the individual or the rights of the public are supreme.

Then if our personal liberties may be restricted, there is the constant possibility that some unreasonable restraint will be imposed. It is the duty of the courts to arbitrate in all cases in which individuals claim that agents of government have taken action in violation of some provision of the Bill of Rights. This is a grave responsibility, but as Thomas Jefferson is reputed to have said, "Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty."¹⁰

¹ Franklin Delano Roosevelt, in an address to Congress, January 6, 1941.

² Thomas Jefferson, *Declaration of Independence*, adopted by the Continental Congress on July 4, 1776, paragraph two, line one.

³ Woodrow Wilson, *Speech*, New York Press Club, September 9, 1912.

⁴ *New York Times*, page 11, col. 7, August 29, 1949: As a recent example, a veterans' organization marched toward the meeting place where singer Paul Robeson was to speak in the town of Peekskill, New York. Because of the danger of violence Robeson did not speak on this particular occasion. Someone might claim that his "freedom of speech" had been interfered with, but no provision of the constitution had been violated because it could not be proven that any agent of the government was involved in the disturbance.

⁵ *Constitution of the United States of America*, first amendment.

⁶ *Adkins v Children's Hospital*, 261 US 525, (1923)

⁷ *US v Macintosh* 283 US 605; *Reynolds v US* 98 US 145 (1879)

⁸ *C. J. Cox v New Hampshire* 312 US 569 (1941)

⁹ *US v Albert J. Rabinowitz*, case no. 293, October term 1949, case decided February 20, 1950, Mr. Justice Minton delivered the opinion of the court.

¹⁰ Attributed to Thomas Jefferson, also to Patrick Henry; recorded in remarks of Wendell Phillips, *Public Opinion*, in an address on January 28, 1852.

FROM THE BOUND FILES

Early comment on "new-type" tests: "In view of the marked contrast between mimeographed or printed forms and the ink insertions by the students, the possibility of gaining information from others by illegitimate means the temptation to do so is increased."—A. C. Krey (Hist. Outlook, April, 1928)

"One of the trite statements to-day is that the Government should undertake this thing and that. Did those who would have it so think that government gets its incomes from the contributions of citizens, they would be less ready to suggest it."—Ira F. Nestor (Hist. Outlook, Feb., 1919)

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

Dobbins Vocational Technical School, Philadelphia

ACTIVITY PROGRAMS

All the schools visited gave a great deal of emphasis to student activity programs. Most of the schools roster one period a day for that purpose. During the week, these activity periods were used for club programs, special hobby programs, special study time, home room, and assemblies. A few schools have rostered or are considering rostering such club activities as dramatics, music, and forum as part of the regular curriculum, one or two periods a week.

The following is an unusual innovation relative to the activity program conducted in one of the public high schools. One day a week, or about fifteen days a term, is given over to special activities or to study. All students who have "C" or better in all subjects may spend the day on any activity they wish. That day, therefore, is devoted to practice for the operetta, the school play, or the band. Field trips involving as many as two hundred students are generally planned for this day. One of the two vice-principals is in charge of planning, administering and assigning teachers to the various activities. Students who have grades below "C" in any subject must spend one or two periods with the teacher who "flunked" them. Any student may elect to study under the guidance of a teacher.

The principal is highly in favor of the plan, although he is aware that some students do not get much out of it. He feels that the majority of students benefit a great deal. Teachers have mixed feelings. The student guide who took me on a tour of the building liked the study-day idea herself, although she felt that some students take advantage of it.

Another interesting experiment in the same school is conducted by the English department with the blessings of the principal. In the 10th grade the students are divided into two groups, one receiving English composition one term and the other English literature. The next term

the two groups alternate. The English literature classes (about 120 students) are assigned two periods a week to a lecture hall and three periods a week in two groups of 60 each to two libraries (the city library is located in the school building). During the lecture periods, the students receive lectures on the drama, the novel, poetry, and the essay by teachers who specialize in these fields. During the library periods, the boys and girls are expected to read in the four fields under the supervision of the librarian and an English teacher. There are no tests and no one fails the course. The grades that are given are based on the amount of reading. The whole purpose, as can be seen, is to stimulate a love and interest in literature.

A COURSE IN SOCIAL LIVING

As already indicated, there is a general trend to include a course in social living or human relations in many of the schools. I should like to comment briefly on one. The major responsibility of the course is centered in two teachers, one a guidance counselor and the other an industrial arts teacher. The theoretical content of the course is the responsibility of the classroom teacher and it is based on Sorenson and Malm's book—*Psychology for Living*. Incidentally, in all except one of the schools where such courses are given, this book is the basic text. The areas covered in the courses aim at giving the student an understanding of the biologic and psychologic bases of human behavior, the emotions, mental health, how to get along with people, boy-girl relationships and family relationships. During several weeks of the term the boys and girls are divided into two groups. The boys are assigned to home economics teacher for instruction in home economics useful to boys, and the girls are assigned to the shop teacher for instruction in such matters as home design, interior decorating, use of simple hand tools, repairing, et cetera. In addition, an attempt is now being made by the medical department of the school

Editor's Note: The first part of this discussion appeared in the December 1951 issue.

to provide instruction in home nursing. Lectures, field trips, and film aids are also used.

PROBLEM OF THE SLOW LEARNER

(The following discussion includes also observations from visits to Philadelphia public high and Vocational-Technical Schools)

In schools where there exist large numbers of students of low ability or low academic interest many teachers responded with feelings of frustration regarding the educability of these students. Their frustration stemmed, mostly, from a sense of inadequacy or feelings of failure in coping with the problem.

Conversation with teachers and personal observation point to the following factors as the core of the slow learner problem:

Student Factors

1. Lack of native ability and such skills as reading and good study habits.
2. Relatively small span of attention.
3. Lack of interest in (or recognition of a sense of value or purpose) in studying various subject areas.
4. Inability to project their needs and interests into the future.
5. External pressures for student's time, such as radio, movies, television, sports and employment.

Administrative and Teacher Factors

1. Courses of study are in some cases too far removed from the students' needs and interests.
2. Lack of reading materials (textbooks or collateral readings) written on a low reading ability level but with a mature appeal to the adolescent mind.
3. Lack of adequate teaching aids, such as appropriate films, filmstrips, and records. Part of the difficulty in some schools is less with the availability of these aids and more with the lack of the necessary visual and auditory equipment (projectors, electric outlets, recording machines, dark shades.) In some schools administrative difficulties and lack of teacher training in the use of these aids are also factors.
4. Inability or failure of some teachers to accept the low ability student for what he is. Without realizing it, many teachers tend to project their own sense of values and

standards of achievement upon their students.

5. Administrative difficulties and psychological factors encountered in attempting to group students by ability.

HOW TO RESOLVE THE PROBLEM OF THE SLOW LEARNER

Beyond grouping by courses or by ability, the selecting of appropriate reading material, simplifying courses, offering new courses, the using of visual aids and a few of the experiments referred to, the problem of the "slow learner" is very much still an unsolved one. There is a general feeling, more implied than expressed, that there is need for intensive study and experimentation. However, certain significant factors relative to more effective teaching of the slow learner are apparent. These obviously concern the points mentioned above.

1. Re-evaluation and revision of courses of study (subject content) in terms of the roles the slow learners are most likely to assume as adults. Just as a job analysis is desirable in determining the nature of a training program for specific jobs, so, perhaps, an activity analysis of the average adult—in his daily routine of living—might help to determine the degree of emphasis to be given to such subject areas as political science, history, sociology, elementary psychology, geography, and economics.
2. Visits and conversation with most teachers revealed that, whatever the course of study may have been, the textbook is the principal teaching tool. Nearly all teachers rely on it. Consequently, unless many teachers are retrained to use other tools (including perhaps individual classroom libraries appropriately selected for the slow learner), and until we can provide a larger variety of teaching aids, it seems desirable that a special effort be made to provide the slow learner with a textbook suitable to his reading ability level and maturity of interest.
3. There is need for more emphasis (perhaps in the earlier grades) on social studies skills, such as how to study, how to read, how to conduct meetings, how to participate in group discussions.

4. A program of teacher education which will enable teachers to feel secure within themselves and not feel inadequate because their students are not capable of progressing at an ideal pace. Not all teachers, of course, project their own sense of values and standards of achievement upon their students. There are many teachers who are sympathetic and understanding of the students' backgrounds and limitations. They recognize these and build their teaching around them. On the other hand, here and there, one finds teachers who disparage and belittle their students because they do not live up to the expectations of the teachers.
5. An expanded program of visual and auditory aids. As stated previously, some schools have no adequate equipment for enlarging visual and auditory aid offerings.
6. Experimentation with an enlarged activity program. Learning, as we know, means change. The desirable products of learning (in the social studies) are knowledge, skills, understandings, adaptability, and patterns of thinking and behavior essential to functional citizenship. The old educational concept regarding the social studies was that by acquiring a knowledge of the history of the world, one's country, and one's govern-

ment and economic system, one would, by virtue of that knowledge alone, be a better citizen. That knowledge is important is, of course, accepted. However, we recognize today that knowledge alone is insufficient for effective citizenship. One's knowledge of good and bad, for example, doesn't make him necessarily do good. The bank robber may know that it is wrong to steal, but he does so anyway. Many a non-voting citizen had learned in school the value of voting, but he still may not vote at election time. Are there not many well-informed persons who act contrary to what they know is right? Is it possible that through a well thought out and well organized activity program, adding to what are already excellent programs in many schools, we can better fixate those patterns of behavior that are essential in the over-all concept of good citizenship?

By way of conclusion, my visits showed that by far the majority of teachers are cognizant of the problem of the slow learner, even though some feel frustrated about it. Many teachers are sympathetic, understanding, and perform a creditable job. There is need, however, for a more intensive study of the problem of the slow learner, immediate and long term in its purpose.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

FILMS

Wedding of Palo. 70 minutes. Rent. Brandon Films, 200 W. 57 St., New York, N. Y.

Tells year-round life and customs of people of Greenland.

Flight Over the Arctic. 11 minutes. Sale. Air-Age Education Research, 100 Park Ave., New York, N. Y.

Depicts an exploratory flight over Greenland.

Land of Eternal Silence. 10 minutes. Sale. Hoffberg Productions, 362 W. 44 St., New York, N. Y.

Reveals the quiet grandeur to be found in Greenland.

People of the Arctic. 22 minutes. Sale or rent. Knowledge Builders, 625 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

Shows the geography and resources of northern Alaska, Labrador, Greenland, and Siberia.

A Day in Congress. 18 minutes. Sale or rent. Films Inc. (Instructional Film Div.) 330 W. 42 St., New York, N. Y.

Shows the actual work performed during a day in Congress.

Powers of Congress. 10 minutes. Sale. Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Building, Chicago, Ill.

Depicts the powers that Congress has ob-

tained since 1789.

Battle of Peace. 19 minutes. Free loan. Army Pictorial Service Division, Motion Picture Branch, U. S. Army, Washington, D. C.

Shows the methods of the U. S. Military Government in rebuilding and rehabilitating German cities.

Germany Today. 16 minutes. Apply for rates. RKO Radio Pictures, Inc., 1270 Avenue of the Americas, New York 20, N. Y.

Film shows life in post-war Germany.

School in Cologne. 15 minutes. Sale or rent. British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Depicts the problems in rebuilding the educational system.

Yugoslavia. 15 minutes. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

Contrasts life on small and large farms. Gives views of city of Belgrade.

New Yugoslavia: Year Three of the Plan. 10 minutes. Sale or rent. Yugoslav Information Center, 36 Central Park South, New York 19, N. Y.

Shows the economic developments in their "Five Year Plan."

Workers' Holiday. 10 minutes. Sale or rent. Yugoslav Information Center.

Depicts welfare measures, including a trip to the resorts of the country.

Down the Dalmatian Coast. 10 minutes. Sale or rent. Yugoslav Information Center.

A beautiful scenic travelogue along the Dalmatian coastline.

Horsemen of the Pampas (Argentina) (Earth and Its Peoples series). 20 minutes. Sale or rent. United World Films, 1445 Park Ave., New York, N. Y.

Reveals the daily life of a cowhand on a large Argentine ranch.

Argentina. 11 minutes. Sale or rent. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill.

Buenos Aires and the city's dependence upon the pampas for export products.

Argentine Argosy. 9 minutes. Long term loan. Teaching Film Custodians, 25 W. 45th St., New York 22, N. Y.

A panorama of city life, cattle ranches, farms, mountains and lakes.

Andes and Pampas. 8 minutes. Sale. Filmsets,

Inc., 1956 N. Seminary Ave., Chicago 14, Ill.

Contrasts the life and industry in the mountains of Chile with that of the pampas of Argentina.

Pattern for Peace. Charter of the United Nations. 15 minutes. Sale or rent. British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Film includes an analysis of the work of the General Assembly.

Defense of the Peace. 12 minutes. Rent. United Nations, Film Division, 405 E. 42 St., New York 17, N. Y.

Portrays the over-all organization and function of the various branches of the United Nations.

Along the Life-Line of the British Empire. 11 minutes. Sale or rent. Nu-Art Films, Inc., 112 W. 48 St., New York 19, N. Y.

Trip from India through Suez-Mediterranean-Gibraltar to England.

Rock of Gibraltar. 10 minutes. Long term lease. Teaching Film Custodians.

Study of Gibraltar and life led by British soldiers stationed there.

Building a Nation (Israel). 20 minutes. Sale or rent. United World Films, Inc.

Cultural changes in Israel, showing also how the Arabs and Jews live.

Liberia—Africa's Only Republic. 58 minutes. Free. Association Films, Inc., 347 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

Presents a brief geographical, historical, and topographical description of rubber planting and harvesting on the Firestone plantation.

Rubber from Liberia. 30 minutes. Free. Association Films, Inc.

Gives a more concentrated treatment of the rubber industry.

African Rhythm—The Native Dance in Liberia. 10 minutes. Free. Association Films, Inc.

Four native dances stirringly portrayed.

Rubber Lends a Hand. 28 minutes. Loan. United World Films, Inc.

Shows a wide range of usefulness of rubber in easing the work of modern farmers.

Synthetic Rubber. 21 minutes. Free. U.S. Bureau of Mines, Graphic Services Section, 4800 Forbes St., Pittsburgh 13, Pa.

Process by which synthetic rubber is manu-

factured; differences between natural and synthetic rubber and the most suitable uses of each is displayed.

FILMSTRIPS

Rubber Industry. 34 frames. Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago, Ill.

Production of rubber from its raw state to the finished product may be seen.

Congress: Organization and Procedures. 44 frames. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Text-Film Dept., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y.

Depicts the procedure and methods used in organizing Congress.

Structure for Peace—How the United Nations Works. 78 frames. Free loan. United Nations, Filmstrip Distribution Unit, 405 E. 42 St., New York 17, N. Y.

The structure and functions of the five organs, including the General Assembly are shown.

Berlin Blockade. 61 frames. *New York Times*, Office of Educational Activities, 229 W. 43 St., New York 18, N. Y.

Struggle between the Western powers and the Russians over Berlin are highlighted.

Argentina, Paraguay, and Uruguay. 40 frames. Stanley Bowmar Co., 513 W. 166 St., New York 32, N. Y.

Emphasis is on Argentine industries, natural resources, and Buenos Aires.

Argentina. 70 frames. Stillfilm, Inc., 171 So. Los Robles, Pasadena, Cal.

Seen are new maps, Andes Mts., pampas, transportation, cattle, wheat, corn and flax.

America's Responsibilities in a World Divided. 1950. 50 frames. Silent with captions, black and white, guide. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, *The New York Times*, 229 W. 43 St., New York 18, N. Y.

Shows how and why the U.S. turned from isolationism to internationalism. Pictures and text illustrate the conflict between democratic and totalitarian concepts and touch upon some of the dangers inherent in great concentration of power.

Our Democratic Government. 1947. 43 frames. Silent, black and white, guide. Sale. Creative Arts Studio, 1200 Eye St., Washington, D. C. Shows the historical development of U.S. government from the colonial period to the present, with emphasis on the Constitution, its conception, usage, interpretation and development.

Constitution — Principles and Methods of Change. 1950. 37 frames. Silent, black and white. Sale. Text-Film Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 17, N. Y. Explains seven basic principles of the Constitution. Emphasizes the continued need for re-examination, revision, and general strengthening of the Constitution to meet the demands of the modern world.

Uneasy Borders of Communism. 1950. 56 frames. Silent with captions, black and white, guide. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, *The New York Times*, 229 W. 43 St., New York 18, N. Y.

A survey of areas in Asia where there is danger that the Korean pattern of aggression may be repeated, or where World War III may break out. Evaluates the power of the Communist world and the appeal of Communist propaganda to the people of undeveloped countries.

Ceylon! 78 frames. Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 E. Ohio St., Chicago, Ill.

Shows Ceylon's people, cities, occupations, customs, industries, government, and schools.

News and Comment

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia

NEED FOR A NEW IMMIGRATION POLICY
Before going to India as United States Ambassador, Chester Bowles, the former Governor

of Connecticut, challenged American immigration policy in an article published in *The Survey* (November, 1951.)

Mr. Bowles points out that the present American immigration policy is a product of isolationism and of the age of Harding and Coolidge.

"Its basic principles are outdated, discriminatory, and in clear violation of the democratic concepts on which our country has been built."

From 1776 until 1921, immigrants were welcomed to America. In the latter year the first restrictive legislation was passed. Three years later another law discriminated even more harshly against southern and eastern Europeans. The law of 1924 was modified somewhat five years afterward. In 1945 and 1946 the racial discriminations against Asiatic peoples were eased but not eliminated.

According to Mr. Bowles, one aim of United States immigration policy since 1921 has been to reduce drastically the number of immigrants to our country. The second purpose has been to set forth "the concept of nationality 'class,'" thus placing millions of Americans of southern and eastern European origin in the position of being inferior citizens. This is not only completely counter to our democratic principles but it is ridiculous.

Mr. Bowles quotes statistics to prove his contention of discrimination against eastern and southern Europeans.

He believes that if we genuinely want to practice democracy we must re-establish the United States as a haven for refugees from tyranny and bigotry and as

"a land of opportunity for the many competent, vigorous people who would welcome an opportunity to build a freer and fuller life in what is still the New World."

Ambassador Bowles would have the United States use its sizable backlog of unfilled quotas and pool them without regard to nationality.

In spite of the cry of bigots and of anti-alien groups who would have us believe that all Europe is trying to move to the United States, Mr. Bowles shows that from 1930 to 1946, the British used only 5 per cent of their substantial annual quotas and the Irish used only 3 per cent. *The average for all countries was only 23 per cent of their quotas.*

Mr. Bowles suggests an annual immigration ceiling of four-tenths of one per cent of our population from all countries not in the

Western Hemisphere, with no nationality quotas. Based upon our last census this would give us a total of about 640,000 immigrants annually—which is only half the actual number that we absorbed successfully in the years just before World War I when our population was one third less than it is today.

Subversive aliens are skilfully detected and excluded by the United States Immigration Service.

Mr. Bowles, like many others whose hearts are in the right place, wants the United States to be an asylum for the oppressed. To be sure his suggestions are valuable and should be included in a solution when one is reached.

However, it is the considered opinion of this commentator that the roots of the opposition to more liberal immigration have been ignored by Mr. Bowles and by most the persons on his side of the fence.

Belief in democracy and the possession of a generous and charitable heart do not cope with the fears of labor unions and of the American Legion that aliens will flood our country and take away the jobs of citizens. Nor do they influence the bigots and their legal representatives.

In order to deal with the immigration problem realistically persons of good will must consider the objections of the opposition and meet them practically instead of with pious platitudes.

It may be charged that labor's objections to aliens on the ground that the latter constitute a threat to the American standard of living is a selfish one, but labor has a right to fight for its own self-preservation. The crux of the problem seems to be: How can we plan to admit aliens without jeopardizing the jobs of our present citizens? If we devise a way, can we persuade the labor unions that it is sound and not detrimental to their interests?

The bigots present a special problem in which this commentator can find neither merit nor any hope of solution. Yet until this problem is solved, a more liberal immigration policy seems very far away indeed.

GAMBLING

Gambling is the unit of interest studied in "the problems of democracy" course offered by Mr. Ralph Scoll, Head of the Department

of Social Studies in Sea Cliff High School, New York. (*Clearing House*, October, 1951)

The means by which Mr. Scoll demonstrates to his students that gambling is unwise furnishes an excellent object-lesson. He emphasizes that "honest" gambling will at infinity produce a stalemate" . . . and that "the odds are always against you, unless you yourself are the house."

An overview of the whole unit was presented to the class, which was encouraged to find periodical and newspaper articles on gambling.

The teacher then promised "real" gambling right in class. He selected a member of the class who had boasted that he could outwit anyone else at cards. The teacher's equipment consisted of regulation cards and twenty pennies. The class made a circle around the boaster and the teacher. The latter two played a game called "Black Jack" in which the teacher was the winner. He explained that he won by the same method used by professional gamblers—cheating.

The outcomes were emphasized by a lecture and an outline of its content, pupils' comments and questions, and discussion.

To demonstrate that the odds are always against you unless you yourself are the house, Mr. Scoll borrowed a high-low gambling machine from a local fraternal organization. Everyone was lent five pennies to bet as he pleased. Before the period was over, every penny lent was re-taken by the house. The students listened attentively to the teacher's conclusions that gambling devices are set up in the favor of the house.

The unit was concluded by an individual pupil's oral summary of the unit and critical commentary upon it, followed by class discussion.

FINANCIAL SECURITY EDUCATION

R. Wilfred Kelsey, secretary of the Committee on Family Financial Security Education (Institute of Life Insurance, 488 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York) has announced the issuance of five publications on financial security education. They are the fruits of a summer workshop at the University of Pennsylvania and are available without charge from the Committee at the New York address cited above. Three are resource units:

Building for Family Financial Security in Home and Family Living. P. 59.

This is a resource unit for aiding teachers in organizing functional programs suited to pupils' life adjustment needs. They are intended primarily for teachers of home management and family living, but contain material which may be useful to teachers in English, mathematics, social studies and business.

Partnership in Family Financial Security in the Early Years of Marriage, designed for senior high school courses in family living, is based on a curriculum study made by the supervisor of home and family life in a large mid-western urban community.

Family Financial Security for Mathematics Students. P. 36. Provides arithmetic problems suitable for grades eight through twelve.

The two bibliographies cover money management, banking, insurance, Social Security, investments, home ownership and consumer economics. They are:

Some Supplementary Teaching Aids on Financial Security Education. P. 16. A list of free and inexpensive materials.

A List of Motion Pictures and Filmstrips on Financial Security.

NARCOTICS

New York City's *Committee on the Use of Narcotics Among Teen Age Youth* has made a comprehensive series of recommendations on prevention and education, treatment, law enforcement, and legislation. (*Channels*, Vol. 4, No. 2, Sept. 15, 1951.)

The Committee recommends that the public schools offer a unit of study to inform students how addiction occurs. It suggests that pupils be taught the effects of narcotics and the necessity for developing proper habits and attitudes in relation to such drugs. The Committee has also enlisted the aid of community agencies to provide discussion groups and meetings to disseminate information. A comic book, *Trapped*, deals with drug addiction among a group of teen-agers.

The press, radio and television services of the City are cooperating in the educational campaign against narcotics. The New York Board of Education has distributed a booklet, *Suggestions for Teaching the Nature and Effects of Narcotics*, for use in grades 7 to 12.

The educational program stresses prevention, in spite of the objection made by the U.S. Commissioner of Narcotics who believes that an educational program would only arouse curiosity among young people and stimulate them to experiment with narcotics.

"New York school officials believe the available evidence shows that teen-age addiction does not result from knowing too much about the effect of drugs, but rather from ignorance of the consequences, so that a direct educational assault of the problem is indicated."

WOMAN SUFFRAGE

Esther Morris was a successful worker for equal suffrage in the territory of Wyoming. (J. Donald Adams: "Speaking of Books," *New York Times Book Review Section*, Nov. 11, 1951.) Her story has been told in a pamphlet written by Fred D. Stratton, Jr., a descendent of one of Wyoming's first settlers, who describes Esther Morris as a forthright woman of single minded determination. She was a friendly soul, helpful and popular with the miners, of whom there were many in the town. She seems to have been gracious and hospitable as well as efficient.

To her belongs the credit for the first tangible victory in the struggle for equal rights. Her strategy was planned in 1869 at a tea party which she gave at her cabin just before the first Wyoming territorial election. To this tea Mrs. Morris invited the women of the community and the two local candidates for the Legislature.

"We would like to have from you," she told Colonel Bright and Captain Nickerson, "a public pledge that whichever of you is elected will introduce and work for the passage of an act conferring upon the women of our new territory the right of suffrage."

Both candidates gave their pledge. Shortly after his election to the Wyoming Senate, Colonel Bright drafted the bill which became law that year. It was the first to give the vote to women anywhere in the world.

The two goals of the feminist movement have been the suffrage and equality of rights under the law. (Fisher, M. J.: "Equal Rights by Constitutional Amendments." *Social Science Summer Issue*, June, 1951.)

The first goal was attained by the enactment of the Nineteenth Amendment in 1920. Since that time many women's groups have been striving for the attainment of the second.

On January 25, 1950, the Constitutional Amendment for Equal Rights was finally approved by the United States Senate. It has also been approved by the House and now awaits its fate in the state legislatures. Three fourths of their legislatures must ratify the Amendment in order to make it part of our Federal law.

The proposed Amendment provides that "Equality under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex."

The Amendment is needed because of the thousand discriminations against women in the laws of the 48 states. The legal disabilities of women can be classified under seven categories.

In some states, such as Massachusetts and Alabama, women are still not permitted to serve on juries.

A second category of discrimination is the superior rights of fathers as compared with those of mothers.

A third is the disability of a married woman to sue or sign contracts without her husband's consent, and the legal disability of a married woman to conduct a business unless she undergoes a special court procedure not required of men.

In some states the law still provides that the earnings of a wife belong to her husband. In New York her earnings from outside the home belong to the wife, but her earnings from work performed inside the home, such as sewing or taking in boarders, are the property of the husband. Likewise in the State of New York, a husband may sue a third person for damages for the loss of his wife's services due to injuries, but a wife has no such property right in the services of her injured husband.

Prominent women's organizations working to eliminate these disabilities include the National Federation of Business and Professional Women and the General Federation of Women's Clubs—the two largest women's organizations in America. They and thirty others including

organizations of women lawyers, physicians, accountants, and dentists and the N.E.A. are in favor of the Amendment.

Those opposed to the Amendment include the National League of Women Voters, the American Association of University Women, the National Women's Trade Union League and labor groups such as the A. F. of L. and the C. I. O. Those organizations fear that it would jeopardize the state legislation passed during the last fifty years for the protection of women workers.

Many of these protective laws were temporarily suspended during World War II but they are again in effect.

Those favoring the Equal Rights Amendment maintain that although protective legislation served its purpose when women were unable to defend their own interests, such legislative guardianship is no longer needed.

The trend is for protective legislation to follow the pattern set by the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 which established standards for *workers*, regardless of sex.

The protagonists of the Equal Rights Amendment believe that the time has passed when protective labor legislation is needed only by women. They believe that there should be no discrimination either in favor of women or against them.

The effect of the Amendment on maternity laws would not work a hardship because the

state courts have held that special classes of citizens may be treated separately under the law, without violating the principle of the equal protection of the laws. For example, veterans are treated as a special class.

The effect of the proposed Amendment on support laws has been questioned. Its sponsors maintain that each state could declare by law that the contribution of the wife in labor and services to the support of her husband and family entitled her to a share in the family funds.

Concerning dower and curtesy laws, under the Amendment, each state would decide to what share each spouse would be entitled of the real and personal property of the other, provided only that the share was the same for husband and wife.

The advocates of the Amendment admit that some legal confusion might follow its adoption but they contend that it would permanently remove discriminations which state statutory laws might remedy only temporarily and which would take all the states a great many years to accomplish. Furthermore the present trend in international charters and declarations is in the direction of the principle of equal rights. The Charter of the United Nations states that its purposes are to promote and encourage

"respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion."

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

Youth Faces Its Problems. By Nelson L. Bos-sing and Robert R. Martin. New York: Laidlow Brothers, 1950. Pp. xxxiv, 672. \$3.00.

Young people today, it would seem, are confronted with an unpredictable future burdened with weighty problems such as our nation's forefathers never imagined. *Youth Faces Its Problems* should be of invaluable assistance to the social studies teacher who must bring

youth to a consciousness of these problems which it faces and must guide the young adult to find rational answers to the questions raised.

The authors have stated in the preface to the text, "The point of view and emphasis of this book are upon function, and only incidentally upon structure." Thus the student is not forced into factual memorization, but rather is led into problem areas, particularly those of his own community.

The extensive field of study which is indicated in the title has been divided into ten areas of study: problems of home and family life, government, economic relationships, communication and transportation, health and sanitation, spending leisure time, crime and delinquency, education, religion, and population. Each area is further divided into three or four units which are presented in the form of questions. The text makes a basic survey of the problems, but further information must be sought through work on projects which are listed at the conclusion of each unit. Problem-solving techniques have been outlined as an aid to the researcher.

Of additional value are lists of general and advanced readings, lists of visual aids, study exercises, and word lists. Charts and tables have been added where necessary, but the book is not overburdened by them.

The pertinent and up-to-date material in this text should be a competent guide to teacher and student in any course of social living.

BERTHA M. HIRZEL

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The Latin American Republics. By Dana Gardner Munro. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950. Second edition. Pp. 605. \$4.00.

The first edition of Professor Munro's text appeared shortly after American entry into World War II and brought the story of the Latin American nations up to the outbreak of that conflict. This new edition includes an account of the wartime developments in the inter-American system and concludes with a discussion of the Organization of American States and the political scene in the Americas in 1950. Professor Munro has done more than bring his chapters and bibliography up-to-date. A number of chapters have been re-written in the light of more recent research and an effort has been made to group the republics on a regional basis with a short introduction to each region.

Devoting only a quarter of its pages to the colonial period, this is a well-written and useful text for courses with major emphasis on the national period. Like other history texts in this field, however, it does not solve the problem of treating the national period without

presenting the student with twenty separate national histories and bewildering lists of successive presidents and dictators. Like other texts it also gives inadequate attention to the economic and social developments of the 19th and 20th centuries. In part, at least, this is the result of a paucity of monographic studies on which the text-writer can draw. But it is also the result of an over-evaluation of political developments. Little emphasis is given to the development of the two crucial problems which today threaten the political stability of so many American republics, the rapid exhaustion of natural resources coupled with the accelerated pace of population growth. Professor Munro's chapter on Haiti, for example, while ably summarizing the political developments in that republic gives only a few lines to the significance of a population of over three million, jammed into a tiny area of decreasing soil fertility and scanty power resources. Without greater emphasis on this aspect of Latin American history, texts like this tend to be sterile political chronicles which might leave the American reader with a feeling of superiority in regard to the ineffectual attempts of Latin American leaders at achieving stable political democracies.

WILLIAM L. NEUMANN

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University of Maryland

The Family: A Dynamic Interpretation. By Willard Waller. Revised by Reuben Hill. New York: The Dryden Press, 1951. Pp. xviii, 637. \$5.25.

The late Willard Waller was a sociologist of profound insights and rare capacity for sociological analysis and interpretation. At various times, he directed his study to the family, divorce, teaching, war, the army, and the return of the veteran, producing in each case a valuable contribution to sociological literature.

His book on the family, published in 1938, was a suggestive and stimulating, albeit somewhat discursive, study of the interactive aspects of the American family. Before his death, in 1945, he had planned extensive revision of the book, and he left voluminous notes prepared for that purpose. Now, Reuben Hill has successfully carried the revision to completion. Some chapters stand much as they

did, others have been rewritten, several have been dropped and several added. The writing has been considerably tightened up, and new materials and up-to-date bibliographies and teaching aids added.

The purpose of the book is clearly defined. It is to study the American middle class family in its interactive aspects, that is, as a group of socially interacting personalities. It does not attempt a study of the family as an institution. As a study of the personal-social interaction of marriage, courtship, and the family, the book is excellent—full of insights, and soundly based in sociology and psychology. Here is none of the claptrap so characteristic of "marriage courses" and "education for family living." "There will be little in this book about the physical aspects of family life," says Dr. Hill in Chapter 1, "little about its economic base. There will be no instructions concerning the techniques of sex relations, no discussion of budgeting, no exhortations to lead the good life, and no helpful hints on flower arrangement."

The book is organized to follow the natural history of the family group: life in the parental family, courtship, early marriage, parenthood, and empty nest. Each of these stages receives roughly a section of several chapters. There is also a section dealing with family disorganization, including chapters on both bereavement and divorce. A chapter on proposed changes concludes the book.

Instructors interested in the social process approach rather than the institutional, will find this a definitive text. High school teachers will find it valuable background for themselves and their most able students.

WAYNE C. NEELY

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Problems of Labor. By Glen W. Miller. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951. Pp. xvi, 560. \$5.00.

This volume, a new textbook in labor problems, has as its basic premise the point of view that conflict between labor and management in our profit-seeking economy is deep-seated but not irreconcilable. While collective

bargaining is an accepted way of solving labor problems, the author believes that government intervention in labor relations is of the utmost importance; "since government exists to promote the welfare of all, it must control some of the more selfish economic activity of either management or labor." (p. 514) Consequently, a considerable portion of the text is concerned with the governmental activities through which a satisfactory solution to labor disputes is sought.

The text is divided into three sections. In the first section the author examines the sources of labor-management conflicts and the attitudes of the groups concerned toward these issues. The remainder of the volume is concerned with some of the more pressing labor problems (unemployment, old-age dependency, sickness and accidents, and, finally, in the last section, in great detail, the wage problem) and their solution. In discussing each problem the author carefully defines the views that labor, management, and the public present in the hope of reaching an acceptable conclusion.

However, it should be clearly stated, the author does not view the conflict between labor and management as an unending one. On fundamentals the two groups are in general accord; "in the long run there is much more similarity in their interests than there is in more immediate issues." (p. 506) Disputes, then, are over the more immediate problems that the participants face within the expanding framework of a democratic-capitalistic society. Government's task is to try to eliminate weaknesses and abuses—of which the most significant is economic insecurity; it can best do this, the author believes, by continuing to exert a considerable measure of control in labor relations.

At the end of each chapter there is included a summary and a series of thought-provoking questions designed to stimulate discussion on the part of the student. While a bibliography would have been desirable, the author compensates for this lack by citing pertinent references in his footnotes. This book, the result of many years of teaching, is a worthwhile addition to the expanding shelf of texts devoted to labor problems.

RICHARD LOWITT

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Worlds. By Richard Joel Russell and Bowerman Kniffen. New York: Macmillan Company, 1951.

Culture worlds are seven divisions of the earth's surface within which geography and man's cultural development have reacted on each other in much the same ways. Each of these areas is subdivided into Culture Realms and Regions. This organization represents a successful attempt to make world geography more attractive to college freshmen.

A detailed listing of the good and bad points is impossible in a small space. The constant comparison of sizes and populations to similar sections of the United States is excellent. The fact that culture groupings overlap many political boundaries lends simplicity to what might become a dull and encyclopedic recital. The clear and comprehensive maps give illustration and added point to the text. The accent on cultural development gives much needed background to other social studies.

On the debit side, geography is a science and should be impartial. The statement, on page 365, calling Liberia, Portuguese and Spanish Guinea "cesspools of outlawed social practices, reservoirs of disease, and museums of the pre-mechanical age," while well written and probably true, is a bit strongly worded. Again, it is doubtful whether the mountains of northern Labrador are "the one range of really high mountains east of the Rockies" in spite of their Alpine appearance. Some of the maps, for example those on pages 294 and 304, would be improved by the addition of the main roads and railways. These criticisms do not detract seriously, however, from a volume potentially valuable to college and high school readers alike.

WILFRED T. GRENFELL

St. James School
St. James, Maryland

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Jew-Hate as a Sociological Problem. By Peretz F. Bernstein. Translated by David Saraph. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. Pp. vi, 300. \$3.75.

A scholarly evaluation of this important subject.

Ready soon —

THE AMERICAN ADVENTURE

Wainger and Fraser

A new United States history for grades seven and eight.

Other Important Texts

American Government Today

Fincher, Ferguson, and McHenry

Gives senior high school students clear understanding of the principles and values of American democratic government.

Psychology for Living

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TROW, ZAPF, and McKOWN



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BOOK CO., Inc.

330 West 42nd Street
New York 36, N. Y.

How to Improve Your Personality. By Roy Newton. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1950. Pp. 205. \$2.50.

A very useful book for courses in Social Living.

Brief History of our Nation. By Herbert Gross. New York: Oxford Book Company, 1950. Pp. vi, 308. Paper \$.87; Cloth \$2.08.

A text that is simple and can be understood by students.

Two Sides to a Teacher's Desk. By Max S. Marshall. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951. Pp. viii, 284. \$3.00.

Here is a book about teaching written with wisdom and humor.

Comments and Cases on Human Relations. By F. K. Berrien. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. Pp. 500. \$4.50.

A unique volume with practical value.

Social Psychology at the Crossroads. Edited by John H. Rottler and Muzafer Sherif, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. Pp. xviii, 437. \$4.00.

A stimulating book for all Social Psychologists.

The Soviet State and its Inception. By Harry Best. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. xx, 448. \$6.00.

A sober objective study of Russia.

Journey for our Time. Edited by Phyllis Penn Kohler. New York: Pellegrini and Cudahy, 1951. Pp. 338. \$4.00.

Dramatic accounts of Russia and the Russians.

Education the Wellspring of Democracy. By Earl James McGrath. Birmingham, Alabama: University of Alabama Press, 1951. Pp. vii, 139. \$2.50.

A view of the present status of education in the United States.

Man's Story: World History in its Geographic Setting. By T. Watter Wallbank. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1951. Pp. xxxiii, 768. \$4.50.

Outstanding in every respect.

Problems in American Democracy. By S. Howard Patterson, A. W. Selwyn Little and Henry Reed Burch. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951. Pp. xxx, 639. \$2.50. Encouraging to have a revision of this fine text.

Here They Once Stood: The Tragic End of the Apalachee Missions. By Mark F. Boyd, Hale G. Smith and John W. Griffin. Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida Press, 1951. Pp. iii, 189. \$3.00.

A study of the Spanish Mission era in Florida.

The United States as a World Power. By Samuel Flagg Bemis. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1950. Pp. xxi, 491. \$3.75.

Most of this book was published previously as Part III of *A Diplomatic History of the United States*.

Statement on Race. By Ashley Montagu. New York: Henry Schuman and Company, 1951. Pp. xxi, 172. \$2.00.

A definite but simple and readable primer on one of the most crucial problems of our time.

Liberal Education for Men. By Thomas Woody. Philadelphia: Pennsylvania Press, 1951. Pp. viii, 296. \$4.00.

A worthwhile description of ideals and practices of educators in different lands.

A History of Modern Philosophy. By Frederick Mayer. New York: The American Book Company, 1951. Pp. xl, 657. \$5.25.

This book attempts to remedy weaknesses in earlier texts.

History of the Buccaneers of America. By James Burney. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Incorporated. 1950. Pp. xxvii, 381. 3.75.

An accurate account of buccaneering.

An Evaluation of The Culture Unit Method for Social Education. By Wanda Robertson. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950. Pp. vi, 142. \$2.50.

This study should prove refreshing for teachers and encourage new thinking about better ways to develop citizens of the world.

The Chartist Movement. By Mark Hovell. Manchester, England: Manchester University Press, 1950. Pp. xvii, 327. \$3.25.

A reprint of a very widely read book.

The Investigating Powers of Congress. By Julia E. Johnsen. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1951. Pp. 281. \$1.75.

Both political parties are given their day in court.

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